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THE RISE
OF A UNIVERSITY
IN TWO VOLUMES



II
THE UNIVERSITY IN ACTION



Nicholas Henry Butler

THE RISE OF A UNIVERSITY

II THE UNIVERSITY IN ACTION

*From the Annual Reports, 1902-1935, of
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, President
of Columbia University & Edited, with
an Introduction, by EDWARD C. ELLIOTT,
President of Purdue University &*



m · cm · xxxvii

NEW YORK · MORRINGSIDE HEIGHTS
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY PRESS

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PUBLISHED 1937

FOREIGN AGENTS

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS
HUMPHREY MILFORD, AMEN HOUSE
LONDON, E.C.4, ENGLAND

KWANG HSUEH PUBLISHING HOUSE
140 PEKING ROAD
SHANGHAI, CHINA

MARUZEN COMPANY, LTD.
6 NIHONBASHI, TORI-NICHOME
TOKYO, JAPAN

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS
B. I. BUILDING, NICOL ROAD
BOMBAY, INDIA

MOTHER, STAY'D ON ROCK ETERNAL,
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GLORIFIED BY LIGHT SUPERNAL —
IN THY RADIANCE WE SEE LIGHT.
TORCH, THY CHILDREN'S LAMPS TO KINDLE,
BEACON STAR TO CHEER AND GUIDE,
STAND, COLUMBIA! ALMA MATER —
THROUGH THE STORMS OF TIME ABIDE!

— FROM "STAND, COLUMBIA!" BY GILBERT OAKLEY WARD
OF THE CLASS OF 1902, COLUMBIA COLLEGE

DR. BUTLER'S NARROW ESCAPE.

[Springfield Republican.]

Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, the noted anti-prohibitionist, does not like newspaper headlines. He would be still more critical if he knew how near a prominent New York paper came to mentioning him some time ago, in what he might have thought was a flippant manner. The alert night editor is looking over his proofs of a large civic meeting, held in the auditorium, "Dr. Nicholas Murray, leader of Columbia University, presides."

DEDICATION PREFACE

November 2, 1936

My dear President Butler:

When presenting, for publication through the University Press, these selections from your Annual Reports, there has been a definite professional purpose; that of making readily available for those who are, and those who are to be, the stewards of American higher education something of that versatile and inseeing wisdom marking your long and creative leadership of Columbia University. Such purpose is evident from the nature and the arrangement of the levies made upon your official experience and observations.

Even before the fates had decided that my own life would be given to the work of education I read, quite by chance, in the summer of 1895, your presidential address before the National Educational Association — "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth." Mere chance again led to the reading of those two forceful addresses of 1896 — "The Meaning of Education" and "Democracy and Education." Together these made the foundations of my first educational philosophy. After forty years I find the old foundations in place and sustaining their load. Year by year it has seemed that your reports as President of Columbia University continue to strengthen that fundamental philosophy through which I first came to know you as a personality and a power in American education.

Your approval of the plan of this volume has permitted me to have a coveted professional opportunity. At the same time I am keenly aware that I am again the direct beneficiary of that distinctive leadership with which you have endowed Columbia University for more than a third of a century.

Sincerely,

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT

President Nicholas Murray Butler
Columbia University
New York City

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INTRODUCTION

The wisdom of the wise and the experiences of the ages may be preserved by quotation. — ISAAC D'ISRAELI

DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER was formally installed as the twelfth president of Columbia University on April 19, 1902. President Seth Low had resigned the preceding October, upon his acceptance of the nomination for the mayoralty of New York City. Dr. Butler, of the Class of 1882, then Professor of Philosophy and Education, Dean of the Faculty of Philosophy, and a dominant force in American education, became Acting President. He was unanimously chosen President of the University on January 6, 1902.

For more than thirty years the Annual Reports of President Butler have been distinctive educational records. Indeed, they have been vital documents that have enabled a fuller and clearer understanding of the tangled and entangling problems of the organization and leadership of education not only in the United States but throughout the world.

Herein has been brought together, with some semblance of order, a body of accumulated material which through the years has had a continuing professional value to me. Excerpts from President Butler's early reports were essential parts of my notes for the teaching of the fundamentals of educational administration. These with annual additions from the succeeding reports have been useful guides for the performance of many of the important tasks of the educational executive. Revised and classified, this material is published in the firm conviction that it will also prove to be serviceable to those who are yet to wrestle with the intricate issues of higher education. For this material conserves some of the best of the experience and some of the wisest of the interpretation of American education and American life during the first third of the twentieth century.

This compilation cannot be, nor is it intended to be, an assessment either of the individual, Butler, or of the institution, Columbia. Those who read will not escape the conclusion that the substance of each page, with its vigorous style, and its versatile wisdom, has not been extracted from the ordinary matter of education. Rather it represents the product of assaying the richest of the veins of our civilization, by one who has disciplined himself to see the whole of human life, and the supreme importance of education for the orderly evolution of that life in a democracy.

Here then are significant fragments from the working records of a performer, a performer who is a philosopher, and a philosopher who is a prophet.

The necessary limits to this volume made it essential to exercise rigorous selection. As a result not all of the topics discussed in the original reports are given representation. Yet an attempt has been made to suggest their range and variety; and the selection has not been altogether arbitrary, but based upon the assumption that those topics having more general and less exclusively local application would be entitled to first consideration. As a result of this principle of selection, there is more generalization in the chosen material than would probably meet the approval of those for whom truth must always come armed with charts and statistics, and for whom there is no reality except that which can be stated in terms of quantitative measurement. That fact, however, does not make the problems discussed in the selected excerpts any the less important, nor their conclusions any the less true.

Another criticism to be anticipated is that there are some contradictions in the educational principles and policies represented in the included material. The answer to this possible objection is that no attempt has been made to avoid such changes and developments as have taken place in President Butler's policy through the beginning of his administration to the present time. In general there is a notable consistency of viewpoint in his re-

ports, and the fact that there are a few apparent contradictions in principle over a period of more than thirty years is much less remarkable than if there were no changes at all.

The material selected has been arranged both topically and chronologically. The primary arrangement has been topical—that is, under such heads as seemed to give proportionate and logical representation of the whole series of complete reports. Within the separate topics thus chosen the items have been given secondary arrangement according to chronology.

For the selection, and in particular for the difficult task of arrangement, I gratefully acknowledge my indebtedness to Mr. William C. McCall of the University of South Carolina, and to Mr. Arthur E. Koenig and Miss Helen Hand of Purdue University.

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT

PURDUE UNIVERSITY
LAFAYETTE, INDIANA

November 2, 1936

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PART ONE

THE UNIVERSITY AND SOCIETY

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I

THE UNIVERSITY AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

THE UNIVERSITY A PUBLIC SERVANT

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

THE modern university does not exist to teach alone. It does not even exist to teach and to extend the boundaries of human knowledge alone. It exists also to serve the democracy of which it is a product and an ornament. The modern university must be conceived of as a public service institution. Its men, its books, its influence, its information, must always be at the service of the public when a good and unselfish end is to be served. The university rests on the public will and on public appreciation. To shut itself up, cloister-like, in its own sufficiency, or to turn all its energies and resources inward, are alike to be false to its own ideals and to waste its most valuable opportunities. Columbia University was never so effective a public servant as it is today. It not only holds aloft the lamp of learning, but it touches the practical life of New York and of the nation at a hundred points. So long as it pursues this course, Columbia will be worthy both of its history and of its name.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1911

The problems before Columbia, while numerous and to the passer-by complicated, are in reality susceptible of very simple and very definite statement. These problems are no other than those of setting the standard of performance for higher education in this American democracy. It is our duty and our opportunity to show how effective, how broad and how satisfying a college education may be made; how that college education may be interrelated with more advanced and with professional studies; how the several groups of professional studies may best

* Report for 1907-8, p. 56.

be organized with a view to training men competent to serve the public in fullest measure; how to stimulate and to develop the spirit of inquiry and research, and how to use that spirit so as to make alive and virile teaching of every kind and grade; how to place before the public in printed form the results of scholarly endeavor in the fields both of investigation and of interpretation; how to reach out beyond the confines of the University itself to the great masses of surrounding people and offer them opportunity to gain advantage from the presence in their neighborhood of one of the world's great companies of scholars; how to exalt scholarship and science as factors and agents in modern civilization; and, finally, how to give the scholar and the scientist that security, dignity and influence which the highest interests of the public require him to have.

Columbia University does not think of itself merely as an institution to teach and to guide, however wisely and however well, the students whose names are for the moment borne upon its books. It must, of course, perform this task thoroughly and well, but it must also maintain so distinguished a company of scholars, and so inspire them with a spirit of service, that the community and the nation are richer day by day by reason of their presence and their activities.

It is fashionable to suppose that democratic government has established itself beyond peradventure. Nothing can be farther from the fact. As the Archbishop of York has lately pointed out in an impressive address, we must beware of thinking that democracy carries its own vindication with it. There is no divine right behind democracy, any more than there is behind any other form of government. It is to be tested, like other forms, by its fitness to govern; and the supreme test of democracy is the civic capacity and courage of the individual citizen.

What democracy has undoubtedly done is to establish itself as a better, a wiser, a more helpful form of government than any which has preceded it; but that it abounds in dangers, that it is full of difficulties and perplexities and injustices, few would

have the hardihood to deny. The difficulties of democracy are the opportunities of education. An undisciplined people can never govern themselves, much less govern anyone else. It is the business of American education to impart to the body politic the spirit of discipline, of obedience to law, of subordination to what has been fully tested and tried in human experience, and to build up a habit of serious and reflective thought, and of the honest looking of facts in the face, whether they be pleasant or unpleasant. It is not agreeable to reflect that the most prominent and the most influential American agitators of this generation have been graduated from one or another of the American colleges or universities. Soberness and wisdom, not agitation and iconoclasm, will be the marks of a democracy that is destined to endure.

Columbia University reflects to an astonishing extent in its daily life and activity the life and activity of the nation. It includes in the scope of its interest and sympathy the whole field of knowledge, and it aims to put all professions and callings upon a scientific basis. The University touches the nation's practical life at every point. We have definitively overcome what used to be pointed to as the necessary antagonism of the academic and the practical. For us the academic and the practical are two aspects of one and the same thing. From the academic point of view a problem is approached with reference to its fundamental principles, its elements, and the forces which control it. From the practical point of view, the same problem is approached from the viewpoint of its economic influences and its mechanical effects. It is the business of the academic to interpret the so-called practical. It is the business of the practical to apply the so-called academic.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

The careless observer takes it for granted that standards of knowledge, of taste and of conduct can be maintained; that pro-

* Report for 1910-11, pp. 1-4.

ductive scholarship can be carried forward and multiplied; and that constant and effective examples of idealism and the highest type of service can be offered to the public, without special or particular effort on the part of any individual, organization or institution. Quite the contrary is the case. Life, especially in the United States, is a constant struggle between the forces that make for unselfishness, for placing the resources of knowledge at the fullest service of the public, and for a genuine and permanent elevation of the plane of public and private taste and conduct, and those that make for a purely selfish use of what should be the rich resources of civilization. In this struggle the duty of the University is so plain that he who runs may read. It is the duty of leadership and the duty of direction. For these purposes vast and constantly increasing resources are necessary in order that ground already gained may not be lost, and that our civilization may be helped forward to still higher and more worthy accomplishment.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

The most significant thing that has happened to the university teacher during the past decade is the number and variety of contacts that he has established with the practical affairs of life. These contacts were once confined to the teacher of law, of medicine, or of engineering. They are now shared by pretty much all types of university teacher. When a specialist in the Zend Avesta and in the philosophy of the Parsees is sent halfway round the world to plan relief for the suffering population of Persia, when a professor of psychology is entrusted with the task of framing a plan for the selection of officers for the United States Army, when a professor of electromechanics is set to hunting the submarine in association with the officers of the United States Navy, when a professor of physiography is first sent for to aid the General Staff in formulating a plan of military operations on the field of battle and is then set to deciding where the boundary line between two reconstituted nations shall run,

* Report for 1911-12, p. 53.

the universities are getting pretty closely in touch with the practical events of the time. Moreover, the world at large is showing a new respect for men who have spent years in scholarly discipline and association. The President of the United States was for a quarter of a century a teacher of history and political science in three colleges; the President of the Council in France once taught his native language and its literature to a group of American students at Stamford, Connecticut; the Prime Minister of Italy holds the chair of economics in the University of Naples; the first President of the Czechoslovak Republic is the most eminent teacher of philosophy among his people; one university professor has just resigned as American Minister to China and another is still serving as American Minister to Greece; and so it goes through other European countries and in the South American Republics. The fact of the matter is that the university teacher has some time since ceased to belong to a class apart, to an isolated group leading a life carefully protected and hedged about from contact with the world of affairs. The university teacher is everywhere as adviser, as guide, as administrator; and as his personal service extends over a constantly widening field, so his influence marks the increasing interpenetration of the university and practical life. Indeed, there is no better training in practical affairs than that which the business of a modern university affords.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

It is not so many years since all American colleges and universities, Columbia College among them, were so completely absorbed in their function of teaching a few score or a few hundred youth that they lost sight of their duty and opportunity to render service to the larger public. Happily this condition has passed away, and a many-sided service is now being rendered by progressive colleges and universities throughout the land in ways which the general public both understands and appreciates. It must not be forgotten, however, that unless zeal for scholar-

* Report for 1918-19. pp. 26-27.

ship, productive scholarship, be kept unflagging, the quality of service to be rendered will quickly decline. Perhaps the time has now come when there is more danger that zeal for service may turn attention away from productive scholarship than that productive scholarship will absorb an institution's energies to the exclusion of service. Genuinely productive scholars are rare at any time, and it is not easy for any one institution of higher learning to include in its membership more than a very few of these. Nevertheless, no effort should be spared to develop productive scholars, to reward productive scholars, and to emphasize the importance of productive scholars. Only in those ways will the highest type of ambitious youth be attracted to scholarship as a career, and only through scholarship can the University continue to render the highest type of service. It is the greatest possible mistake to suppose that there is no relation between a student's success in the field of scholarship and his success in after life. Those who are disposed to doubt this may be referred to the Annual Register of Columbia College for 1889-90 where, on pages 20-22, will be found the names of the five students in each graduating class from 1859 to 1888 who were ascertained to stand highest on the records for conduct and scholarship during their entire undergraduate course of four years. These were styled First Honor Men. An examination of this list will show that a very large proportion of the names are those of men who attained distinction in after life. Not a few of them became scholars of national reputation, while others reached high place as jurists, as divines, as practitioners of medicine, or as men of affairs. The list is a very extraordinary one, and may safely be offered in evidence of the contention that there is a positive relation between academic distinction and later performance.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1923

Instances of this kind of effective and highly expert public service on the part of academic officers [as members of governmental or research foundation commissions] might be multiplied

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 10-11.

almost indefinitely, but those that have been cited suffice to illustrate the close relationship which exists between the Columbia University of today and the public service, both local, state, national and international. Such service is as much a part of the University's duty as are any other of its more usual and conventional functions. As the interpenetration grows of public administration by university knowledge and university experience, the public interest will be notably advanced.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

There is no known way accurately to compute or definitely to follow the influences which go out from Morningside Heights to the remotest parts of the civilized world to instruct, to inspire, and to elevate mankind. The pebble cast into the still water of a lake makes ripples which grow smaller as they pass from sight but which, however minutely, make the material structure of the universe somehow and somewhat different from what it was before. The like is true of the unseen and often unsuspected influences which go out from this huge and powerful center of learning, of inquiry, and of service. Lives that have been touched and inspired by these touch and inspire other lives in turn, and to the outermost circumference of human interest and human endeavor there flows the stream of tendency which had its well-spring at the feet of Alma Mater. This thought sobers as well as satisfies. The responsibility for a result so widespread and so unending is literally enormous and the satisfaction which its contemplation brings is of a sort that knows no fear. The charm of it all is that these influences begin to operate when life is young and filled with hope and promise and expectation. These are the days of which Lewis Morris wrote in his familiar lines,

The old school, the dear school, where we were boys together;
The old days, the dear days of life's young April weather.

The summer sun and the shortening days of autumn follow these April days of youth, but as they pass the influences of books and of men, of friends and of places, of associations and of

* Report for 1922-23, p. 5.

memories, grow more precious and more powerful. Time does not weaken them nor space break them in two. They are the foundations of the University invisible.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

In all that relates to public service on the part of trained and competent scholarship, events have been moving with great rapidity. The interpenetration of our public service by scholarship which exists today would have been quite unthinkable a generation ago. Democracies in general, and particularly the office-holding and office-seeking class in a democracy, are very disdainful of him who knows. They greatly prefer to be permitted to deal with each question as it arises in what they are pleased to call practical fashion, which, being interpreted, means without the slightest notion of how the question has arisen, of what it involves, or of what its solution will imply, but with an eye fixed solely on the result which is instantly to follow. It is precisely this habit of allowing the so-called practical man to guide public policy which has brought more countries than one into their present troubles and which has wrecked so much of the world's business. It is instinctive recognition of this fact which is leading government, particularly in the United States, in Great Britain and in Italy, to turn for counsel and guidance to those who know. To the man who does not know, this is, of course, very shocking, but it would appear that if our civilization is to survive it is something to which he will have to grow accustomed. The best cure for a little information is more knowledge.†

COÖPERATION OF UNIVERSITIES

NOVEMBER 5, 1906

This instance of coöperation between two American universities [the arrangement between Yale and Columbia for the joint

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 52-53.

† Report for 1932-33, pp. 17-18.

offering of courses to prepare for consular service] is interesting not only because of what it accomplishes, but because of what it suggests. Ill-informed persons, whose view is too often reinforced by the excessive zeal of partisan advocates, have spread abroad the notion that universities are like business rivals competing for trade. The size of their respective classes, the amount of their endowments, and the result of the athletic competitions between their representatives, are too often supposed to mark the advantages that one institution has over another. As a matter of fact, no two universities are in any ordinary sense of the word competitors. They are jointly engaged in one and the same task, and such coöperation as has been established between Yale and Columbia properly illustrates this fact. In many of the more advanced and highly specialized branches of knowledge, it is simply a waste of time, energy, and money to attempt to duplicate the equipment of one institution in another. It is far better that the universities should specialize somewhat in those remoter fields where the number of students must always be small, and unite together through some coöperative plan to offer to one and the same student the advantages of several universities. This policy is economical financially, and it is economical educationally. In all respects it illustrates what may be called sound educational ethics.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1926

The new administrative problem has to do with the interrelation of University and Hospital administration in a way that will strengthen both and interfere with neither. This can be accomplished by the continued exercise of the same good sense and good will that have already marked the close and intimate coöperation of the University and the Presbyterian Hospital in formulating and carrying forward this great development. All that is needed is the extension to the Medical Center of the same principles, *mutatis mutandis*, of organization and administration

* Report for 1905-6, pp. 30-31.

that have enabled the Trustees of Columbia University to unite with them in one educational system Barnard College, Teachers College and the College of Pharmacy. There should not be, and must not be, any weakening of the control which the charter vests in the Trustees or any division of that control. Whatever Administrative Board or other body is set up for the permanent oversight of the work at the Medical Center can and should be organized on well-defined lines that are indicated and justified by the experience of the University itself. The time has certainly arrived to make it plain that it is now possible to rise above and beyond the personal feuds, the institutional jealousies and parochialisms, and the group interests and ambitions that have both marked and impeded medical education and hospital work in New York City for nearly a century and a half. All these must be subordinated, by the joint and combined authority of the University and the Hospital, to the dominant public and scientific interests for which the Medical Center has been brought into being. There can be no place in this enterprise either for individuals or institutions whose full and free coöperation is hampered by any personal or factional consideration whatsoever. The cause and the ideal are to dominate every act and every policy. The success of this stupendous undertaking and the new and generous support which it is certain to receive as its existence and work become more generally known and appreciated. will make New York, what it should long ago have been, a chief center, perhaps the chief center of the whole world, for medical instruction and research and for public health service.*

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

With increasing frequency the suggestion is heard that Columbia University would perform a distinct public service were it substantially to abandon the policies of the past 170 years and hereafter devote itself solely and exclusively to the promotion

* Report for 1925-26, pp. 34-35.

of excellence and to the training of the superlative excellent. This would mean the turning away of the vast majority of the thousands of students who now flock to Morningside Heights in order to concentrate all the resources of the University upon a group of great scholars and leaders of research who would be surrounded by a relatively small company of carefully chosen students whose previous formal training and accomplishment furnished ground for the belief that they too, in their time, would become scholars of exceptional excellence. The result of this policy would be to bring into being an institution with some of the characteristics of the Collège de France, with some of the characteristics of All Souls' College, Oxford, and with some characteristics peculiar to itself and to twentieth-century America.

"It is still a debated question whether mankind does not, after all, gain more by the intensive cultivation of a select few at the expense of the many than by the almost imperceptible elevation of the mass and the concurrent depression of selected individuals." * The remnant, as Matthew Arnold reminds us, is the word not only of Plato, grandest of philosophers, but of Isaiah, greatest of prophets.

It is argued that there have now come into existence many and various colleges and universities that are able to do all that need be done for him who is described as the ordinary or average man, and that the time has arrived when American democracy can best be served by emphasis upon excellence, by the constant production of the excellent, by the exaltation of the excellent, and by an institution that would devote itself exclusively to the excellent.

It cannot be denied that this argument makes strong appeal, but the question arises whether this function cannot be, ought not to be, and is not being, combined with the more obvious public service of offering training and instruction to the so-called average man.

* Wilbur C. Abbott, *Conflicts with Oblivion* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1924), p. 49.

It is undoubtedly true that a ruling tendency of modern democracy is to wage war upon excellence and to give preference to the commonplace and the ordinary. The great mass of mankind feel what they are pleased to call "safer" under the guidance of mediocrity than under the leadership of excellence. Ideas are unfamiliar things and rather terrifying as well. Instincts and unconscious sympathies are less jarring and less disturbing. Human beings as a whole greatly dislike any interference with the conventional. The notion that the average man is a radical is a figment of the imagination of him who has no real contact with human beings. In truth, the average man is a sturdy and inexpugnable conservative. Were this not so, civilization would have committed suicide long ago.

Were a university to confine itself to the truly excellent, it would immediately subject itself to the criticism, which should in truth be a compliment but which would in fact be regarded as a reproach, that it was aristocratic. If it be aristocratic to seek for the best, to deal with the best, and to exalt the best, then a university, like all education, is essentially and of necessity aristocratic. If it be not the purpose of education to uphold standards and ideals and to raise an increasing number of human beings to a plane where they can and will both conform to these standards and uphold these ideals, then surely education is without any significant meaning whatever. The difficulty lies in the fact that the best is superlative, and therefore by definition must exclude the great mass of competitors in the unending human race. Power and authority, however, are lodged not with the best, the superlative, but with the ordinary, the great mass. Every form of false democracy grows out of this fact and rests upon the power and authority of the mass when exerted to repress, to restrain, and to penalize the excellent. True democracy, on the other hand, is something quite different and is precisely what Mazzini defined it to be, "The progress of all through all, under the leadership of the best and the wisest." The world is almost everywhere floundering in a morass of false democracy, while only now and

then and for a limited time, setting its foot on the solid ground of that democracy which is true. Under the operation of the law of liberty, true democracy will provide itself with real leaders, not limited by rank, or birth, or wealth, or circumstance, by opening the way for each individual to rise to a place of honor and of influence by the expression of his own best and highest self. If democracy is to maintain and to justify itself, it must displace its pasteboard heroes and its papier-mâché leaders of opinion, who are constantly making democracy both a mocking and a jest, for the leaders of tried and tested courage, of sound and well-grounded knowledge, and of that far-seeing vision by which alone a people may be kept from perishing. The anthills of civilization are always crowded; its beehives are often empty. It is the function of a university to help populate the beehives.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

The vigorous and exceptionally bitter political campaign through which the nation is just now passing offers many characteristics which give just cause for alarm and which are a peremptory challenge to the effectiveness and sincerity of the schools, the colleges and the universities of the nation. A capital story is told of Mr. Arthur Balfour, as he then was, who, when approached by Mr. Frank Harris with the emphatic statement that the two greatest obstacles to progress were Christianity and journalism, responded with characteristic serenity and bland understanding: "Christianity, of course; but why journalism?" The sequel does not relate whether the point of Mr. Balfour's reply was lost on Mr. Harris.

Spinoza had a somewhat different view, for Matthew Arnold somewhere reminds us of Spinoza's maxim that the two great banes of humanity are self-conceit and the laziness which self-conceit brings in its train. We might perhaps venture to add together the remarks of Mr. Balfour and of Spinoza and find cause for serious self-examination as a nation. Democracy has come a

* Report for 1923-24, pp. 20-23.

long way, but quite plainly it has a still longer way to go before the maxims and the ideals of the political philosophers who first expounded and extolled it are even measurably illustrated and attained. Ignorance, intolerance, bigotry, bitter partisanship and stupendous self-conceit and self-satisfaction are manifest on every side. It is with utmost difficulty if at all that minds of opposite temper and outlook can agree for the calm and reasonable discussion of any fundamental question of public policy. Catch-words, cheap and tawdry appeals to popular emotion and downright falsification are resorted to with a quiet and satisfied effrontery which almost compels admiration from the onlooker.

It is of no great comfort to be reminded that during the height of the political warfare between the Federalists and the first Republicans language of extreme bitterness and vilification was constantly used. It helps very little to point to some of the happenings at the time of the national political contests of 1840 or 1848 or 1884. Much has changed since those days. The electorate has been multiplied many times, and an almost inconceivable portion of the national treasury has been expended upon education and educational instrumentalities of every sort. Schools, colleges, universities, libraries, institutes, lyceums and like organizations of a score of kinds abound on every side. Why have they not by their vast effort brought to the public mind a much greater measure of reasonableness, a much larger use of scientific and scholarly method in the examination and discussion of public policies, and a much greater sense of fairness as well as sobriety of temper in the presence of disputed and highly contentious questions?

Answers to this question will be many and various. Years ago Dr. G. Stanley Hall pointed out that illiteracy had its advantages if the ability to read was exerted solely or even chiefly upon the unworthy, the unbecoming and the vulgar. The late Earl of Oxford and Asquith gave a warning against "the menacing inroad of the 'best sellers' and the 'shockers,'" and we are not without at least a score of other authoritative and constructive judgments

both as to these uncomfortable and uncomfoting facts and as to the difficulty of displacing them. It would be worth while for the public mind to take to heart the maxim of Spinoza. National self-satisfaction and national self-conceit are on the part of any great people a painful thing to see and a harmful thing to note. The greater the influence of a nation in the modern world, the greater the damage to be done if self-satisfaction is the dominant note of its public mind. While we are engaged in the relief or abolition of poverty, we must not overlook the gravest dangers which attend undue absorption in prosperity. One of these is, as Spinoza points out, laziness. The contentment which follows upon material prosperity induces satisfaction with whatever is, no matter what may be its shortcomings, its dangers or its immoralities.

The public mind needs a constant spur to self-examination, to self-criticism and to higher and finer self-expression. If this cannot come as a result of the effort of the educational system of the land, from where is it to come? We are having just now many and painful evidences of the truth of the saying of a wise man that when religious discord enters by the front door, then Christianity both in spirit and in truth goes out by the window. Low as is the plane on which so many of the office-seeking and office-holding class habitually move, it must never be forgotten that that plane would be much higher, and without delay, if the public mind demanded it. If the emotional illusions and the intellectual barrenness of current political controversy could be put away, and if the American people would discipline themselves to look facts in the face as they really are, the political life of the nation would take on a much finer form. The office-seeking and the office-holding class would respond to the new demands made upon them and the nation would move forward both toward the accomplishment of its national ideals and to the fulfillment of its national obligations.*

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 38-41.

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

It is well-established practice that an older generation pretty constantly has fault to find with the youth of its time. From one point of view, this may be no more than a natural expression of dissatisfaction with a changing environment or of unwillingness or inability to adapt oneself to it. From another, it may be a sound and just criticism based upon the failure of youth either to aim at or to achieve fine and high standards of character and of intellectual life and interest. It is not always easy for the older generation to understand youth, and youth, in turn, is frequently impatient of what it regards as the stiff and harsh judgments of those who are no longer young. The elementary fact never to be forgotten is that all sound conduct and all high intellectual endeavor have certain characteristics in common, no matter when or where in human history or at what age they manifest themselves, and that these have also as many different forms of expression as there are peoples and nations and inheritances and environments and stages of life. The common denominator of excellence should always be present, but the numerator of individual mind and character will be infinitely varied. If the common denominator be at hand, no fault need be found with the numerator by those who live under other climes, at other times, or in very different environments, or who are of an older generation.

That there has been for some years past a steady decline in the practice of good manners is, unhappily, indisputable. Carelessness and inconsiderateness in dress, in speech, and in personal habits have become all too common, not among the younger generation alone by any means, but also on the part of their elders. It is not easy to find satisfactory reasons for such changes as these, or to fix upon the cause which would explain why it is that distinction and correctness of speech, of appearance and of manner are no longer esteemed as they once were. Unconcern for standards of excellence and over-concern for the quick

satisfaction of one's own immediate personal conveniences and desires have combined to undermine that very desirable respect for age, for accomplishment, for excellence, and for high standards which have long marked, and should always mark, the cultivated gentleman. Probably the anti-philosophies and the pseudo-psychologies which are so widely diffused just now, and which are having such deplorable effects upon the instruction offered and training given, particularly in the elementary and secondary schools, have, consciously or unconsciously, played a large part in effecting these changes. Doubtless the careless and unconventional dress and the careless and unconventional speech of teachers and older persons have been seized upon as examples not unworthy of imitation. Whatever the causes may be, their results are deplorable, and there is need of a constant and strong emphasis on those personal habits which manifest themselves in good manners.

The virtually complete abdication of the family as a primary and controlling factor in education, together with the substantial collapse of the educational influence of the Protestant churches, has combined to put upon the school a burden and a responsibility which it cannot bear and should not be asked to bear. Education has its beginning in the family, and it is merely to give formal instruction as part of the educational process that the school has been brought into existence. In no sense can the school be asked to bear the whole burden of that educational process. The moment that family influence and oversight disappear and the church, on one ground or another, allows itself to be pushed aside, there is nothing left of the formal educational process but the school, which is, and always must be, limited in its scope and partial in its influence. The cynical observer who is responsible for the statement that the school has become probably the least injurious influence to which youth is now exposed, no doubt presented an extreme point of view, but it is one which increasingly finds expression. The truth is that the school draws upon itself criticism. not so much by

reason of what it fails to offer or accomplish in its own proper sphere, but by reason of its inability and incapacity to do the work of the school, the family, and the church combined. If the family cannot and will not meet that responsibility which belongs to it, and if the church continues to fail in its educational duty, nothing will be more certain than the gradual disappearance from society of those traits and influences in education which it is the business of the family and the church to foster and to strengthen.

The young American of the present generation is often sharply criticized because of his alleged lack of interest in public affairs and his alleged lack of participation in the nation's political life. Such criticisms tempt to a more or less lengthy discussion which would be out of place in this Annual Report. It may be suggested, however, that the youth of this generation, being without the associations and the memories of their elders, find no little difficulty in understanding just what present-day political differences and discussions in the United States are all about, and just what would happen, if anything, should a group of public officials bearing one party name be substituted for a group of public officials bearing another party name. In short, the sheer hypocrisy of present-day party divisions and discussions in the United States is certainly as much to blame as any one thing can be for the alleged lack of interest on the part of American youth in American public life. The old-fashioned notion that political parties are organized and conducted to present, to defend, and to exhibit certain definite principles believed to be sound and of high public importance, has given way to the highly theoretical notion, mistakenly called practical, that the sole aim of a political party is to get the preferment and the power which attach to public office for as many as possible of those who enroll themselves in its ranks, without any regard whatever to fundamental principles of public life and policy. Contentious questions must, at all hazard, be kept out of sight and hearing. In other words, the one thing about which political parties must not contend is

a contentious question. They must contend only for the purpose of getting and holding public office.

If there were clear-cut and definite party distinctions based on fundamental differences of principle and of policy, as has been the case at various times in the history of the United States, it would presumably not be difficult to enlist the interest of youth on one side or the other of these discussions and debates, and to invite youth to share in the responsibility for the conduct of public business. So long, however, as all really important differences of opinion, no matter how profound or far-reaching the principles involved, are pushed into the background in cowardly fashion by the active members of the office-seeking and office-holding class, and so long as there is no opportunity effectively to settle these disputed questions by an appeal to public opinion, it must be expected that youth will remain more or less cynical and hold more or less aloof. When, as is the case today, the spectacle is presented of men of highest importance in the life of the nation who, finding themselves in agreement upon every important question of public policy now before the nation, are nevertheless enrolled in political parties bearing different names, while, on the other hand, there are enrolled in one and the same political party men who have little or nothing in common in respect to anything which has to do with the pressing questions of the moment, surely youth must be pardoned for not understanding what it is all about, or for asking, with cynical composure, What is the use?

Prevailing electoral systems, controlled, as they are, by aggressive and well-organized pluralities of a minority, are too often failing to produce good government or even representative government. Once upon a time the Athenians chose their archons by lot from an eligible list. One is prone to wonder whether this fact may not offer food for reflection to our modern democracies.*

* Report for 1930-31, pp. 31-34.

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

Perhaps the first person of outstanding importance to observe the approaching problem of unemployment presented by the steady outpouring of students from the universities was Bismarck. That farsighted man, who might have taken rank as a philosopher had he not preferred to occupy the whole stage of statesmanship, long ago described the danger which would confront the German people when they should have on their hands what he called an educated proletariat. This was a catching phrase. It meant, of course, that the German universities had been making and were then making strong appeal to the youth of all classes and groups of the population, and that for these youth, when they had taken their degrees in law, in medicine, in theology, or in philosophy, some occupation must be found. Since Bismarck's time the forces which he observed at work to multiply the university attendance have increased in influence and the question to which he directed attention a half century ago is far more pressing now than it was then. It is doubtless the case that if it were possible to distribute geographically over a country the annual university production in law, in medicine, in engineering, in teaching, in architecture, in business, in journalism, that product might still be pretty well absorbed; but such widespread geographic distribution is exceedingly difficult, perhaps impossible. There is every tendency on the part of these university-trained men and women to move into larger centers of population, where the professions which they are about to join are often already greatly overcrowded. What this country needs is not by any means fewer educated men and women to serve it through the learned professions and otherwise, but the distribution of the available supply of these educated men and women where there is greatest public need for their service. It is particularly true that in the field of medicine there are large areas which are quite insufficiently supplied with well-trained physicians and surgeons to care for the ordinary ailments of the

population. It is partly because of the overcrowding of this class of persons in the cities and larger towns of the United States that many of them have suffered so severely during the depression through which we have been passing for some four years past. There is probably no quick and certain answer to the question as to how the need for a wider and better distribution of the annual university production can be brought about, but that the question should be carefully studied, primarily from the standpoint of the general public interest, is quite certain.*

THE ACADEMIC AND THE PRACTICAL

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

Columbia University is, and for some time past has been, a rapidly growing and developing organism. It offers both to the observer and to those who are charged with its oversight and care all the problems and difficulties that are presented in one way or another by life itself. The University has its own peculiar problems of growth, of development, of adjustment, of nutrition, of disease, and even of partial or complete paralysis and death. Columbia illustrates to an extraordinary degree the principle of unity in variety. Beneath the superficial appearance of varied, and sometimes even conflicting, activities which it presents, there exists an essential unity of purpose and of method. Where duplication of effort or overlapping still exists, it is because of some personal or traditional influence or characteristic which must be reckoned with. Nothing is more irrational than to measure the effectiveness of a university and the success of its work by the standards that are so easily applicable to mechanical processes, or even to a business conducted for gain. A university is precluded from being efficient in the mechanical or business sense by its essential character and by its necessary policies. A university is not at liberty to discharge or to displace servants simply because they are not the best of their kind. It must pay through a long course of years, sometimes very dearly,

for errors of judgment or lack of foresight in making original appointments. No part of a university's purpose is more important than that of building up a loyal and devoted body of intellectual workers and artists who have a pride in their calling as well as a feeling of security in it. A good deal of what the business world would call incompetence may well be tolerated by a university today for the sake of recruiting the intellectual élite of tomorrow and firmly establishing its position and its influence in our democratic life. The man with the measuring rod, the tape line, and the impertinently inquisitive questionnaire is as great a nuisance about a university as a contagious disease would be. More than thirty years ago, when President Barnard was asked how many hours a year he devoted to the work of Columbia College, he replied by multiplying the number of hours in the day, after having carefully subtracted eight hours for sleep, by the number of days in the year and handed the figures which represented the product to his questioner. Being a devoted student of mathematics and astronomy, he did not fail to take full account of the fact that when the question was asked him it was leap-year.

Columbia University declines to measure itself or to permit itself to be measured by quantitative standards. The greatest universities in the world are not necessarily those with the largest endowments or with the most beautiful and commodious grounds and buildings or with the greatest enrollment of students. They are those in which the process of man-making is going forward with greatest devotion and energy and with best results in the conduct of life, and those in which a trained zeal for truth constantly discovers itself in private and in public action alike. We have just now been treated to a shocking spectacle and one which may well cause us to wonder whether the influence of the higher education is even yet more than skin deep. Some of the most noted scholars and scientists of the world have, with the advent of the great war in Europe, apparently lost all sense of what is true, of what is honorable, and of what is be-

coming. On every side we find men of this type rushing like the bitterest and most untutored partisans to the defense of whatever policy or course of action the governments of their several countries have chosen to adopt. Some of them have even gone so far as to insult the great universities and learned societies in other lands than their own which have in years past and in happier days honored them by singling out their scientific and literary achievements for special marks of distinction. *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* If the scholars and scientists and the men of letters of the world are to behave in this fashion, then what are we to expect of the uneducated and half-educated masses of the population throughout the world? It takes no small faith to face the situation which inquiries like these present and suggest. Scholarship alone is plainly useless as a guide to conduct. Science alone is in the same category. Literary achievement and literary reputation are no guarantee of common sense and ordinary decorum. It must be true, then, that the world-old problem remains. It is that of shaping and directing men's conduct. This is, after all, the end and aim of a university's existence and the only reason that can justify the labors and the sacrifices necessary to make a university possible. A university itself is, as an institution, very old indeed; its work, as we now plainly see, has only just begun. The enormous expansion of scientific interest during the past century and the widespread and apparently sincere expressions of devotion to scientific method have as yet produced no appreciable result either on the public mind or on the judgment and good sense of scientists themselves so soon as their eyes are lifted from the microscope and the test tube. We are confronted by the deplorable fact that those among us who are supposed to be the wisest and the best disciplined behave like the crudest and the most untrained under the pressure of national chauvinism or those discreditable emotions which war calls into full play. The dilemma which confronts us is either to give up the task of using knowledge and discipline as instruments for the elevation of mankind, or to seek for the cause of the pres-

ent failure and to set to work with renewed and more intelligent vigor upon a long and difficult task. Columbia University will not hesitate a moment in making its choice. No matter how disappointing the results of the world's best efforts may seem, and no matter how gloomy the immediate outlook, Columbia will continue to strive to do all that in its power lies to improve itself and all those whom its influence may directly or indirectly reach. It may some day be revealed to us that no small part of present-day discouragement and disappointment is due to the structure of government in those countries where the agents of government are not directly responsible to public opinion. It may perhaps be found to be true that the education of the public opinion of the mass has proceeded to a point far in advance of that occupied by the rulers of nations who are designated by heredity or chosen from a narrowly confined class. If this be true, a remedy is not far to seek.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

The natural limits of a university's activity are those of the liberal arts and sciences and of the professions for which definite and scholarly preparation should be made. There would appear to be no reason for the University to expand beyond its present limits unless human ingenuity should discover some new liberal art or science, or should develop some hitherto unsuspected profession for which definite and scholarly preparation must be had. The traditional liberal professions — law, medicine and theology — have now been increased by a half dozen others, for all of which the University makes provision. It is hardly judicious to say that the needs of man will forever be satisfied by the existing division of intellectual labor, and, therefore, it is not possible to say that no new demand will ever be made upon Columbia University. It is sufficient merely to bear in mind that the University is at the moment meeting fairly well the demands that have been made, and that its history indicates what its attitude would be

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 1-5.

should the intellectual, the moral, or the religious life of man call upon it for new and now unsuspected forms of service.

There are obvious advantages in being able to develop intensively rather than extensively the work of the University. Both scholarly effort and professional training may undoubtedly be improved in ways and by means that would make no demand whatever for an expansion of the University's activities. Moreover, no one university, however well endowed or however happily placed, can hope to cover equally well every part of the great field of knowledge. There should be and will be a differentiation and a division of labor among the universities, so far at least as highly specialized fields of activity are concerned. This differentiation will be based on local conditions, or on traditional preoccupations, or on special endowments, or on some other cause which will operate persuasively to determine wise university policies. There is no proper sense in which universities are competitive institutions. They are and always should be co-operating institutions, to serve the nation and mankind by the most economical and high-purposed use of their joint and several resources. If these facts and principles be kept in mind as controlling, it will not be difficult to guide Columbia University as it enters its fifth period toward the fuller attainment of its noble purpose, by paths that will be both pleasant and in the best sense profitable.*

ASPECTS OF ACADEMIC FREEDOM†

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

The contacts and associations of civilized men are many and various. The two contacts and associations that have been most lasting and most influential are those which constitute the State and the Church. The State is the expression of man's ability to coöperate with his fellows in establishing law, in preserving order, and, as the generations pass, in protecting the opportunity

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 43-44.

† See also "Academic Freedom and Public Criticism," pp. 405-13.

of each individual to achieve and to enjoy liberty. The Church is the expression of man's desire to coöperate in worship of the object of his faith. Both State and Church have a long and familiar history, and there is no need to recount any part of it here. Of the other contacts and associations of men, none is likely to be considered more important than that which has for its purpose the conservation, the advancement, and the dissemination of knowledge, together with the pursuit of truth, upon which activity all knowledge depends for its vital power. When men are sufficiently convinced that the pursuit of truth is an object worthy of their lifelong endeavor, the university as we now know it comes into existence as both the voice and the symbol of this form of human activity. When men associate together in pursuit of truth, their ruling thought is not agreement, but truth as each finds and interprets it. For this reason there will be in the university nothing which approaches agreement or unity as to matters of politics or religion beyond the fact that honest and sincere men are protected in their right to hold such political and religious views as they may choose, provided only that these are consistent with the pursuit of truth itself and with the welfare and usefulness of the particular society of scholars to which they belong. With all the good will in the world toward an individual who might dissent from the multiplication table or insist that he had solved the problem of perpetual motion, the teachers of mathematics and of physics would not be able to find a place for him in their teaching ranks. Somewhere in the fields of religion and politics a similar line is to be drawn, but it is difficult to find, and still more difficult to apply if found.

There is no recognized doctrine of human liberty which extends to the individual the unchallenged right to take his own life. If he attempts it he is forcibly prevented, and if he attempts it and fails, he is punished. What is true of an individual is true likewise of men's associations in the State and in the Church. There comes a time when dissent takes on the form of suicide or assault with intent to kill, and when, therefore, it is prevented

and punished. The philosophical basis for this is clear enough. There can be no serious discussion of truth and no sincere attempt to answer the question of jesting Pilate, unless it be assumed that there is such a thing as truth to be pursued, and if possible, found. When found and demonstrated, truth is to be recognized and acted upon. It will not do for someone else to say that he has a wholly contrary conception of truth, or that truth for him means something quite other than truth for anyone else. Some forms of this genially inconsequent doctrine are just now enjoying a certain short-lived popularity based upon a false psychology and a grievous travesty on philosophy, but their irrationality and the immorality of conduct based upon them are so obvious that their life is certain to be short.

Underlying the organization of the university, then, there is a certain general, very general, agreement on a series of fundamental assumptions as to the State and the Church; Columbia University, for instance, is both American and Christian. Unless a university entirely abandons its own peculiar aim and becomes merely an instrument of propaganda for some specific doctrine, it cannot in its institutional capacity properly go beyond this and be drawn into either political or religious controversy. Its individual members, be they few or many, will follow the guidance of their several heads and hearts in seeking or accepting political and religious associations and in advancing specific political or religious doctrines; but they will not, indeed they cannot, thereby commit the university to their own convictions or beliefs.

It must be borne in mind, then, that any member of a university who does his duty as he sees it in citizenship and in the religious life is doing it solely as an individual, and that his university relationship or activity is in no wise affected thereby. This is a hard lesson for some observers of contemporary life to learn. They do not seem able to understand how it is that one individual may have a variety of human associations and yet not commit them all to his own course in relation to any one

of them. Clear thinking will distinguish between men's different associations, and it will be able to render unto Caesar the things which are Caesar's and to render unto God the things which are God's.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1926

The reader who permits himself to be more than diverted by the clamorous criticisms of American universities that are thrust upon his attention from time to time will doubtless be mystified by their contradictory and self-destroying character. He reads, on the one hand, that these universities are hotbeds of radicalism, of revolution, and of all that is signified by the mystic word Bolshevism. Doctrines destructive of morality, of religion and of public order are taught within their walls, and the influence of this teaching upon the public mind is revolutionary and pernicious in the extreme. Insistent demand is made that such teachers, however learned and successful, be silenced by fiat or turned loose to do their destructive work as individual disturbers of morality and the public peace, without the advantage of university association and university authority. If then the page be turned, the reader finds himself asked to believe that these self-same universities are the entrenched strongholds of privilege, of reaction, and of capitalism, whatever that may mean. They are managed by capitalist Trustees and subservient Presidents whose minds are fixed on cultivating with servility and subservience all possible sources of benefaction. An ardent exponent of this point of view not long ago contributed to an English weekly publication an article on the American university, appropriately enough unsigned, in which he asked with heated passion these two questions: "Is it any wonder that, at least openly, not a single professor of economics in America is a Socialist? Is it a matter for remark that no work of importance in political science has come from an American university these fifty years?" Having thus established by the simple process of

* Report for 1919-20, pp. 27-29.

interrogation two facts which are rather more astounding than true, the anonymous writer then goes on to mention the names of six English men of letters, all of whom would be pretty certain of dismissal from their posts were they on the staff of an American university. It so happens that each one of the six has lately been invited to teach or to lecture at an American university and that three of them accepted the invitation, with every appearance of physical and intellectual security. Five other Englishmen are named as those whom students would not be allowed to invite to address them. Three of the five have been so invited and have accepted, and the remaining two have been invited in vain. One can only smile at the self-deception and credulity which elevate these questions and these statements to the plane of argument or of fact; but devotees of the economic interpretation of history find in these assertions all proof that is needed to establish the doctrine of the economic interpretation of university policy and university administration.

In the field of mathematics these two contradictory and self-refuting criticisms would cancel each other and disappear from the calculation. Psychology, however, and particularly the psychology of the group or mob mind, as well as the psychology of him who would uplift all humanity in the twinkling of an eye, knows nothing of mathematical limitations or mathematical precision, and it finds no impossibility in performing the acrobatic feat of keeping these two contradictory judgments in effective operation at one and the same time.

The simple truth is that both of these extreme and wholly unjustified forms of criticism converge on the conclusion that the American university has increasingly tended to become a genuine university, a home of intellectual liberty and freedom of the spirit, and that of course it gives hearing to doctrines and opinions held by sincere and scholarly seekers after truth which are by no means universally accepted and which may indeed excite more or less violent opposition. In the Church such exhibitions of freedom of thought would lead to expulsion; in the State they

invite political attack, and if possible personal humiliation and suffering and loss. The university remains the only present home of liberty and apparently its only hope. If the voice of liberty be silenced there and the intolerance that now prevails in Church and in State be permitted to invade the precincts of the universities of the world, then indeed must we be prepared to enter upon a new and dismal Dark Age that will cast the thoughts and the activities of man in common and uniform molds, there to remain until such time as the unquenchable thirst for liberty shall again effectively manifest itself among men.

No one who really believes in the power of truth fears liberty. However man may stumble, however wrongheaded or however blinded he may be by passion or by interest, we are forced to believe either that truth is real and can be found, or that there is no such thing as truth and therefore that interest or passion may properly enough be enthroned in the place that has been reserved for truth to occupy. It is plain enough that the most popular of present-day philosophical teachings do not aid us much when we reflect upon these great questions. But these pseudo-philosophies are having their little day and will shortly pass. The Great Tradition will again assert itself and the current of intellectual and spiritual understanding and appreciation will be found to flow unbroken from the classic springs and sources of insight and interpretation down to the time in which we live, and once again to assert its commanding power and to make manifest its lofty inspiration.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

If it be a tenet of a ruling political and economic system that freedom of thought and expression, within the natural and normal limits that are set by good manners and good morals, is not to be permitted, then that which may have been a university under other conditions ceases to be such any longer. It was a saying of Aristotle that all educational systems must of necessity be the

* Report for 1925-26, pp. 21-24.

servants of the state in which they are. In a sense, this is of course true, for otherwise Bedlam would become the normal state of man and progress impossible. No form of society and no state wishes to commit suicide, and therefore it must protect itself, and is justified in protecting itself, against a certain kind of undermining and of attempts at overthrow. The danger is always the sternly practical one of so interpreting these clear principles as to make them the tools of a faction and to elevate persecution to the plane which only tolerance should occupy. Violence and rudeness of speech, as well as unmannerly and turbulent conduct, are themselves forms of the very fanaticism and intolerance against which they so frequently pretend to be directed. Liberty is one thing and license is quite another. The true university, like the true democracy itself, is built upon the foundation of liberty. Neither a university nor a democracy can last long if the attempt be made to place it upon the foundation of mere license.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

The liberal, one of whose chief characteristics is his loneliness, is ready to hear a reasonable and reasoned exposition of any doctrine, institution or belief, and to expect to reply to it in like fashion and on his own terms. The world abounds, however, in those who are so insistent upon having their own way at once that their ruling desire is to persecute, to harass, and to punish anyone who may hold doctrines or opinions contrary to theirs. None are so quick to manifest this illiberal tendency as the radicals of any type. If these radicals be devotees of the Communist despotism, then their wish is to persecute and to deport Fascists; if, on the other hand, they be Fascists, then their ruling passion is to persecute and to deport those who are critical of them. It is usual for all these radicals to denounce war and to agitate against war, and then to proceed with apparently bland unconsciousness to carry on war in its most violent and destructive form. If ever it be thought that all wars are fought by armies and navies and air-

* Report for 1930-31, pp. 19-20.

ships and poison gas, one who so thinks has much yet to learn concerning human nature.

What many are so slow to understand is that forcible repression of the views or feelings of any considerable group is the well-established and almost necessary prelude to a revolutionary explosion. The safety valve of Hyde Park, which England's common sense has established in London, is the best protection the public can have against forcible revolution. When men of revolutionary mien find themselves at liberty to talk as violently, as unreasonably, and as ridiculously as they like, and that their outgivings are greeted with cynical smiles, they begin to wonder whether it is all worth while and to calm down to a less childish attitude and mode of expression. Marching about the streets of a great city carrying banners bearing various inflammatory phrases is a peevish and wholly inconsequent way of disturbing the public and of alienating public support. It indicates a sort of mental infantile paralysis.

The wise man who looks out upon this twentieth-century world will surely wish to give to ideas, to scientific knowledge, and to the fine arts a yet freer passport than they have ever had. He will wish to combat assertion with argument and emotional outbursts with the hard facts of human experience. He will understand the fact that mankind has not reached perfection in any of his institutions or exhibitions of endeavor, and he will do his best to free himself from that zest to persecute which comes so readily into action whenever a difference of opinion, religious, philosophical, political or economic, presents itself to view.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

These Reports have frequently, and perhaps sufficiently, discussed the subject of *Lehrfreiheit*. There is multiplying evidence, however, that this term is now being frequently used in the United States in a wholly indefensible way as well as given a quite impossible application. *Lehrfreiheit* does not in the least

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 36-37.

imply freedom to act in contempt of the accepted standards of morals and good manners. It means only freedom of thought and accompanying freedom of expression as to any part of the field of knowledge which a competent scholar has made his own. It is an essential attribute and characteristic of true university teaching and research. The situation in respect to the elementary school, the secondary school, and in large part to the college, is a quite different one. As to these, the controlling principles are those set out by Aristotle in his *Politics* many centuries ago.* These are his words:

Of all the things which I have mentioned that which most contributes to the permanence of constitutions is the adaptation of education to the form of government, and yet in our own day this principle is universally neglected. The best laws, though sanctioned by every father of the state, will be of no avail unless the young are trained by habit and education in the spirit of the constitution, if the laws are democratical, democratically, or oligarchically, if the laws are oligarchical. Now, to have been educated in the spirit of the constitution is not to perform the actions in which oligarchs or democrats delight, but those by which the existence of an oligarchy or a democracy is made possible. Whereas among ourselves the sons of the ruling class in an oligarchy live in luxury, but the sons of the poor are hardened by exercise and toil, and hence they are both more inclined and better able to make a revolution. And in democracies of the more extreme type there has arisen a false idea of freedom which is contradictory to the true interests of the state. For two principles are characteristic of democracy, the government of the majority and freedom. Men think that what is just is equal; and that equality is the supremacy of the popular will; and that freedom and equality mean the doing what a man likes. In such democracies everyone lives as he pleases, or in the words of Euripides "according to his fancy." But this is all wrong; men should not think it slavery to live according to the rule of the constitution, for it is their salvation.

When the Communist despotism takes over the administration of official life in Russia, it insists upon having the doctrines of Communism taught to the youth in all its schools and on excluding all else. It does this as a matter of self-protection. The Nazi

* *The Politics of Aristotle*, translated by B. Jowett (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1885), I, 168-69.

Government in Germany and the Fascist Government in Italy do precisely the same thing. In Mexico, the ruling authority, who is called the Supreme Chief, has recently declared that the Government

must enter into consciences, and take possession of them; the conscience of the children, and the conscience of the youth, for the youth and the child must belong to the revolution. . . . With all their trickery the clericals cry: "The child belongs to the home; the youth belongs to the family." Egoistic doctrine! Child and youth belong to the community, to the collective body; and it is the revolution's unescapable duty to attack this section, and dispossess them of consciences, to uproot all prejudices and to form the national soul.

Surely there is no mincing of words and no concealment of policy to be found here.

In the United States, it has been wholly usual to assume that the population understood, and with substantial unanimity supported, the fundamental principles of republican government as set out in the Constitution of the United States and as developed and applied through nearly a century and a half of national life. When that which is called by the unattractive word civics was first introduced into the elementary and secondary schools a generation or more ago, that term was meant to cover the fundamental principles and applications of our constitutional form of government. At no time has it been the intention, or could it be, to offer to immature children an elaborate scientific examination and comparative study of despotism, of democracy, of republicanism, of communism, or nazism, or of fascism. That is something reserved for the older and well-trained student when he has put on the *toga virilis* and arrived at years of maturity with an informed and disciplined mind at his command. No people can ever dream of permitting their government to maintain elementary and secondary schools at public cost and at the same time allow to be taught in those schools that which undermines the government upon whose support the schools themselves rest. One who will not or who cannot conform to this basic requirement of social order has no place in the teaching force of a

tax-supported school. It is wholly absurd and unreasonable to attempt to apply to the elementary and secondary schools the ruling principles of university life and work. The state must always have a care lest it act to its own undoing through failure of intelligence and courage. Surely the tax-supported schools maintained by a republican form of government cannot, in honesty and decency, exert their influence to undermine or to overthrow that government.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

No member of Columbia University, whether teacher or student, has ever been separated from the University because of his personal opinions or convictions on any subject, whether religious or political. In the very few cases in which such separation has taken place it has always been because of conduct or of failure in satisfactory academic performance. The nonexistent and wholly imaginary happenings of contradictory sort which have been laboriously exploited in the press from time to time for several years past as having taken place at Columbia, are only evidence of the emotional and suspicious nature of a considerable portion of the public. The more responsible newspapers feel that their reputation for accuracy is sufficiently protected when they insert the adjective "alleged" at an appropriate place in their allusions to these nonexistent happenings. The University never enters into discussion of these inventions, for to do so would be to give their anonymous and irresponsible authors just the publicity which they most desire. Moreover, Columbia University is not administered in or through the newspapers or by reason of appeals to them.

The original Charter of 1754, which brought King's College into existence, is one of the very earliest to specify that the powers of the College "do not extend to exclude any person of any religious denomination whatever from equal liberty and advantage of education or from any of the degrees, liberties, privi-

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 29-31.

leges, benefits, or immunities of the said College on account of his particular tenets in matters of religion." The original Charter of the College of New Jersey, now Princeton University, contains almost identical language.

The spirit of this provision of the original Charter has been even more binding upon Columbia University than its letter. Earlier Annual Reports have discussed and defined the true meaning of academic freedom. For those who are *in statu pupillari* this phrase has no meaning whatever. It relates solely to freedom of thought and inquiry and to freedom of teaching on the part of accomplished scholars as these were first established some two hundred years ago at Halle and at Göttingen. Its object is to make sure that scholarship and scientific inquiry may advance without being hampered by particular and specific religious or political tenets. Academic freedom has never meant, and could not possibly mean in any land, the privilege, much less the right, to use the prestige, the authority and the influence of a university relationship to undermine or to tear down the foundations of principle and of practice upon which alone that university itself can rest. Were a university to permit conduct of this kind on the part of its members, the result would only be to add a slow undermining of the university's influence and repute to open attacks upon them.

Before and above academic freedom of any kind or sort comes university freedom, which is the right and obligation of the university itself to pursue its high ideals unhampered and unembarrassed by acts or conduct on the part of any of its members which tend to damage its reputation, to lessen its influence or to lower its authority as a center of sound learning and moral teaching. Those whose convictions are of such a character as to bring them in open conflict with the university's freedom to go its way toward its lofty aim, should in ordinary decency and self-respect withdraw of their own accord from university membership in order that their conduct may be freed from the limitations which university membership naturally and necessarily puts upon it.

The principles which guide the policy of Columbia University in these respects were fully discussed in the Annual Report for 1918.*

One of the hardest lessons for the militant radical to learn is the distinction between liberty and license. He is not a liberal and has no interest in liberty, for he is neither open-minded nor tolerant. Being a radical, he wishes to tear up something by the roots regardless of what else happens. It is really unbridled license which he applauds, and not liberty at all; but he calls it liberty because he would like the advantage of the fortunate associations and significance of that time-honored name.

Professor Joad of the University of London has succinctly stated the fundamental principles which must control the administration of any public body, whether in the field of liberty or in that of government.

All civilized activity [he writes] is dependent upon a minimum background of ordered security, and the maintenance of this background is a condition of its continuance. The presence of force, in other words, is required in Society not against the normal, social citizen, but against the exceptional anti-social citizen whom the activities of the normal citizen call into existence, that he may be restrained from rendering those activities impossible. The function of the State in this connection is, therefore, to maintain that minimum standard of behavior on the part of all which is the indispensable condition of the pursuit of the good life on the part of any. With this object, and with this alone, it is entitled, by means of the law backed by force, to curtail a liberty whose exercise would threaten the very purpose for which the State exists and by the standard of its furtherance of which its activities can alone be justified. But to concede that Society is justified in confining the social offender is very different from admitting its right to suppress the social thinker. A prison may appropriately be used to reform, if not to deter, the criminal; but it is only by abuse of authority that it is employed to silence the critic of the government.†

From time to time it is hinted, and occasionally openly stated, that endowed public institutions in the field of liberty are will-

* See Annual Report for 1918, pp. 44-52.

† C. E. M. Joad, *Liberty Today* (London: Watts and Co., 1934), p. 128.

ingly or unwillingly the instruments of special and group interests because of the benefactions of the past and those hoped for in the future. So far as Columbia University is concerned, no hint could be more groundless. Its independence of benefactions and benefactors has been tested time and again through the years, and no one has been or is now rich enough to buy control of any portion of its academic policy. Indeed, one very considerable gift was returned by the Trustees after several years because the donor wished certain conditions attached to its use which would have limited the authority and discretion of the Trustees. Moreover, during the last thirty-three years proffered gifts amounting to some \$9,000,000 in all have been declined because they were to be accompanied by conditions which would limit the University's future freedom to administer its trust. Perhaps some of these proffered benefactions might have been accepted, in accordance with the terms which would have accompanied them, without damage to the University; but none the less those terms were such that the impression would undoubtedly have been given to scholars and to the public that the University had bartered its policies and principles for a mess of pottage. Columbia University has been truly free since its earliest beginnings nearly two centuries ago and has every intention of so remaining.*

PROTECTION FOR THE SCHOLAR

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

It is a far cry across the centuries to the days of Plato's *Republic*, but the scholar is coming steadily into his own in a way that would have truly gratified that mighty philosopher. In a hurried, bustling, shifting age in which there is every sort and kind of novel happening and changing of emphasis the man who knows is surely, and not always very slowly, making a place for himself as guiding force. This is true not only in respect to financial, industrial and transportation corporations but even in re-

* Report for 1934-35, pp. 15-19.

spect to government itself. There is more need than ever for him "who has magnificence of mind and is the spectator of all time and all existence." *

The notion that all duly elected persons thereby suddenly gain competence and knowledge which they never had before, is passing, and ignorance stands revealed as ignorance whether it wear an official gown or not. The same is true of the self-conscious and self-congratulating practical man who boasts that he deals with realities and understands how to make them bend to his will, while the scholar, estimable person though he be, deals with ideas and ideals which the practical man in his befuddlement naïvely supposes to have no reality.

The scholar is coming to find a firmer economic basis for his place in society. Like the minister of religion, the missionary and the artist, the scholar has long been supposed to be able to subsist and to thrive upon the intangible and immaterial satisfactions of his labors, while deprived not alone of the luxuries but even of the comforts which the practical man believes belong to his station as of right. There is still a long way to go before the scholar and his family will be adequately cared for in a material sense, but the steady improvement that is making gives promise of continuance, and one of these days the scholar will be found occupying a place which justly belongs to him in a truly civilized and democratic society. He has satisfactions of which most men have no notion whatever. He lives with ideas, with their applications to the needs of men — sometimes higher needs and sometimes lower needs — and he feels throughout his being the thrill of the intellectual life, of its love of beauty and its understanding and appreciation of excellence. For all these there can be no substitute, and given a sufficient economic basis, the career which carries with it these accompaniments and satisfactions can have no equal in attractiveness for the higher and finer types of mind and of temperament.

One of the scholar's chiefest needs is protection in his becom-

* Plato, *Republic* vi. 486.

ing freedom and its exercise. The scholar who in sincerity and knowledge criticizes or dissents from some well-established institution, idea or practice or some new exhibition of folly or stupidity is as much entitled to that dissent as his fellow who defends what this scholar condemns. This is one of the hardest lessons for public opinion in a democracy to learn. The persecuting instinct is so deep and so widespread and the passion for uniformity and conformity is so strong that many a missile will continue to be leveled at the devoted head of any scholar who dissents from a prevailing or a popular judgment. It seems to be forgotten, however, that if he does not dissent, such being his honest conviction, he ceases to be a scholar and falls back into the mob of those who have their thinking done for them and in whose lives passion and quickly flitting emotions take the place of ideas and knowledge as controlling forces. It is just ninety years since Emerson delivered at Harvard University his famous Phi Beta Kappa address on *The American Scholar*, in which, speaking of the scholar, he used these words: "Let him not quit his belief that a popgun is a popgun, though the ancient and honorable of the earth affirm it to be the crack of doom." That was sage counsel then and it is sage counsel now.*

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 16-17.

II

THE NATURE OF THE UNIVERSITY

RELATION TO GOVERNMENT AND LIBERTY

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

FROM one point of view, this change of name from "Columbia College" to "Columbia University" [resolution of the Board, providing that the name "Columbia University" be used thereafter in reference to the departments of instruction and research maintained by the Corporation] is a matter of no great importance. From another point of view, however, it marks in the clearest way the change which has come over higher education in America during the past generation. The university is, with the exception of the Christian Church and the Roman Law, the oldest institution now existing in the Western world. It has survived the migrations of peoples and the rise and fall of dynasties; it has seen the discovery of new continents and a revolution in human thinking. Through all these changes the university has persisted, steadily maintaining its high purpose to seek and to teach the truth and to offer opportunity for the highest and freest exercise of the activities of the human mind. After more than four hundred years the university has come into existence on the American continent. There have been American universities in name — many, quite too many, of them — for decades past; but there have been, and are, very few American universities in fact. Columbia University is one of them.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1913

The popular mind is easily impressed with size, and particularly with large numbers. The fact that Columbia University has under its influence and instruction many thousands of students is annually heralded in the public press as entitling it to claim prece-

* Report for 1911-12, pp. 4-5.

dence over other institutions at home or abroad. Within the University itself no such feeling prevails. The growth in numbers so marked in recent years is, of course, gratifying in so far as it indicates that the curriculum, the equipment, and particularly the teachers and investigators of Columbia are sought on their own account. But we should deplore growth in numbers unless it were accompanied by a steady increase in the quality of the students. . . . Therefore, so long as the quality of the student body is maintained and standards are kept high and definite and are strictly enforced, we need not find cause for alarm because the sum total of all the students under instruction is unprecedented.

But the real test and measure of a university's efficiency are not the number of students enrolled, the size of its endowment, or the magnificence of its physical equipment. The true test and measure are to be found in the productive scholarship of the university's teachers and in the quality of the men and women who go out with the stamp of the University's approval upon them. Columbia is fortunate in having assembled a truly noteworthy company of productive scholars. Hardly a week passes, certainly not a month, without the issuance from the study or the laboratory of some Columbia scholar of a piece of work that is a genuine addition to the literature, the science, or the philosophy of our time. . . .

Still another measure of a university's usefulness to the modern state is to be found in the service which its members render to the public through their association with governmental or voluntary activities of various kinds. It is by such association that the University's scholars bring their training, their knowledge, and their experience to bear upon those practical problems which are of present interest to the public. Among all the universities of the world, the American universities are probably unique in respect to the amount and variety of the public service rendered by their members. Of the American universities Columbia is second to none in the number, scope and importance of undertakings of a public or semi-public character in which its teachers and investi-

gators are engaged. It is but to paraphrase a familiar saying of Plato to point to the fact that only when the rulers and guardians of the state are trained and reasonable men, and when trained and reasonable men are made rulers and guardians of the state, will there be any prospect of mending present ills and of multiplying present benefits. . . .

Active gentlemen with measuring rods and tables of statistics are abroad in the land, and they are anxious to find some way of estimating the effectiveness of the work of a university in the terms of a mechanical formula. They will be disappointed, and any attempt to meet their views and wishes in university administration can do nothing but harm. Those who think that they are measuring spiritual and intellectual characteristics are under an illusion; what they are really measuring are some of the physical accompaniments of mental and spiritual characteristics, and they are assuming an invariable law of concomitant variation. When they farther endeavor to ascertain whether it is more profitable for a university to teach Greek or Physics, they become absurd. It goes without saying that a university must, on the business side, be administered strictly in accordance with business principles. It must know in detail where its income comes from, and equally in detail for what purposes its income is expended. It must exhibit to its own members and to the public a full and faithful account of its financial administration. This Columbia University has done for years, and was a pioneer in doing. The annual reports of the Treasurer are models of their kind, and it may safely be said that the annual budget, covering both estimated income and appropriations, is as complete and as specific as it can possibly be made. To demand all this is right enough, but to go farther and to try to estimate, either in foot-pounds, or in horsepower, or in dollars and cents, the effect and the value of different types of instruction and research is as futile as any human undertaking could possibly be. All mechanical systems of apportioning salaries and of endeavoring to estimate the proportion of overhead charges that should be borne

by particular classes of students are not only impossible of practical application, but if they could be practically applied they would be misleading and dangerous. As has already been pointed out, there are two, and only two, certain tests of the efficiency of an educational system or institution. The first is the quality, the character, and the human service of the men whom it trains; and the second is the scholarly and scientific productiveness of its teachers and scholars. Much as Columbia University still hopes to accomplish, and many as are the faults and weaknesses that it would gladly repair, it cannot be held to have failed when tested by either of these standards.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

Columbia University exists and does its public work in the sphere of Liberty, not in that of Government. All institutions supported by public tax are, and of logical and political necessity should be, controlled and administered directly by public officers. These institutions exist and do their public work in the sphere of Government. They are part of Government. On the other hand, those institutions, whether eleemosynary, educational, literary, scientific, historical or other, that grow up in the sphere of Liberty, depend for their vitality and effective continuance upon the strength of the spirit of liberty among the people and upon the appreciation by the people of the moral responsibility which faith in liberty of necessity involves. In this country it is usual, as in the State of New York, for government to relieve of direct tax the physical property and the capital sum, other than real property, actually employed in the task which the institution was established to perform. That partial exemption from taxation constitutes society's formal recognition of the value to the public of those enterprises and undertakings that are established in the sphere of Liberty. For their support, however, those enterprises and undertakings must look, not to public tax, but to the glad and continuing benefactions of those individuals who,

* Report for 1912-13, pp. 9-11, 13-15.

feeling to the full the significance of liberty, feel as well their personal obligation as citizens for the life and effectiveness of the institutions which the sphere of Liberty contains. The moral obligation on those who are so fortunate as to be able to give to the support of institutions erected in the sphere of Liberty is quite as great as is the moral obligation on the citizen to support by payment of public tax those institutions and undertakings that are established in the sphere of Government.

Men speak so much of government; depend, and increasingly, so much upon government; and so constantly seek, and increasingly, to use the power of government, that they quite overlook the fact that among a free people government is everywhere and always subordinate to liberty. Free men have themselves erected government and have given it for domain and occupation a very small part of all that constitutes their activity, physical, intellectual, social, moral, economic, reserving the vast and unlimited remainder for themselves as the sphere of Liberty. When these fundamental facts are grasped, and only then, will there be appreciation of the place in public life and public service of Columbia University.

Lovers of liberty and men and women bred to liberty who are so fortunate as to have substantial possessions will increasingly feel that they have not done their duty to society, to their city, their state, their nation, and that they have not met fully their moral obligations, unless and until they have made some provision for the support and increasing effectiveness of public institutions in the sphere of Liberty. The spectacle of great fortunes, accumulated however wisely or by whatever effort, being bestowed in huge sums upon a few untrained and inexperienced individuals who happen to be related to the possessors by birth or marriage, without any provision being made for public undertakings in the sphere of Liberty, can only serve as temptation to prohibition or compulsory regulation of private activity and accumulation at the instance of those elements in society which are always on the lookout for ways and means to restrict liberty and

to reduce private initiative and private gain to their lowest terms. Whether a great fortune, made or inherited, is to the public advantage or not, depends not in the least upon its existence or its amount, but upon how it is used by those who have made it or by those to whom it is transmitted. The mere selfish and vain heaping up of huge accumulations for personal or family use and aggrandizement is distinctly not to the public advantage, and is lacking in any sense of that higher and finer responsibility which is an essential part of all morality. To speak only of the dead, John Stewart Kennedy, Andrew Carnegie, Joseph R. DeLamar, Amos F. Eno and Payne Whitney have within recent years set an example of large-mindedness and foresight in the disposal of great fortunes which have erected a standard to which the wise and good may well repair.

Public benefaction in the sphere of Liberty is the measure of what may be called the social-mindedness and the higher patriotism of a nation. It is the glory of the people of the United States that there has been nothing in all history at all comparable to what they have been doing for generations in this respect. All that is needed now is to press home the soundness of the principle that is involved, to keep the needs and the hopes of the sphere of Liberty before intelligent and large-minded men and women, and to accustom them to regard a benefaction in that field as quite as much a moral and social and public obligation as the payment of a formal tax legally assessed by government. It is upon these principles that Columbia University rests and upon their soundness and effectiveness that it bases its confident hope of steadily increasing usefulness in the future, through new and constant additions to the means at its disposal for steady growth in power for scholarship and service along the lines of high endeavor upon which it has moved for a century and three-quarters.

The vast advantage which a university erected in the sphere of Liberty has over a university erected in the sphere of Government is in its freedom from bureaucratic control, from partisan political pressure and from those urgings which are the unhappy

result of compromise between clashing convictions and conflicting public policies. A university in the sphere of Liberty is master of its own destiny and is responsible only to its own ideals and to that larger public which has brought into existence both the sphere of Liberty and that of Government. The university in the sphere of Liberty is quite as much a public institution as its fellow in the sphere of Government and it is equally representative of that public which both types of institution aim to serve. There can be no such thing as a private university, unless perchance some commonwealth be so misguided as to permit that honorable name to be used to cover an undertaking conducted for personal gain.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

There is general and commendable concern throughout the United States at the amount and character of the lawlessness which is brought to the attention of the public day by day. When such a state of affairs exists over a wide territory and for a considerable time, it is plain that there is a lack of correspondence or adjustment between law and conduct which requires more than the superficial examination usually given to it. There is outcry for more laws, for quicker and more severe penalties, despite the fact that these are precisely the steps which may aggravate the existing situation rather than relieve it. There have been laws against theft ever since Moses went up to the top of Mount Sinai, and doubtless long before that, but thieving of all sorts and kinds was never more popular or more widely indulged in than at the present moment. Perhaps education, with emphasis upon moral self-discipline, would succeed where law fails.

If society punishes the lawbreaker in a spirit of vengeance and reprisal, that is at least to be understood, even if not applauded; but if society punishes the lawbreaker in the hope and expectation of thereby preventing others from breaking the same law, then society is flying in the face of all the teachings of history

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 13-16.

and experience. No man with murder in his heart holds his hand because he has read in his newspaper that a murderer in another city has just been executed. Very slight acquaintance with the psychology of the lawbreaker would quickly reveal the fact that he himself always expects to escape detection and possible punishment and that what has happened to some predecessor in law-breaking has little or no terror for him. A most admirable discussion of this entire subject, so difficult and so little understood, has just now been presented, on the authority of long experience and deep study, by the Warden of Sing Sing Prison.* Elihu Root put the kernel of the whole matter succinctly and with precision when he declared in speaking to the American Society of International Law in 1908 that:

It is only in exceptional cases that men refrain from crime through fear of fine or imprisonment. In the vast majority of cases men refrain from criminal conduct because they are unwilling to incur in the community in which they live the public condemnation and obloquy which would follow the repudiation of the standard of conduct prescribed by that community for its members. As a rule when the law is broken the disgrace which follows conviction and punishment is more terrible than the actual physical effect of imprisonment or deprivation of property. Where it happens that the law and public opinion point different ways, the latter is invariably the stronger.†

What irks men is the loss of prestige, of esteem, of business and of social standing; that which they dismiss with unconcern, if indeed they think of it at all, is the likelihood of detection and criminal punishment. The gist of the matter is that lawlessness will come to an end, save as concerns the permanent criminal fringe of society, whenever that public opinion which the lawbreaker fears punishes him with its overwhelming disapproval. The law whose infraction calls out that disapproval is a good law; the law which does not call out that disapproval is a bad law. Moreover, this is not a question which can be settled by

* Lewis E. Lawes, *Life and Death in Sing Sing* (New York: Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1928).

† Elihu Root, *Addresses on International Subjects* (Harvard University Press, 1916), p. 27.

majority vote. It cuts far deeper into the social and moral structure than that. Those legalistically minded persons who are fond of insisting that all laws, whether good or bad, must be obeyed — or, as they say, enforced — while they remain upon the statute book, overlook the fact that this has been the cry of every tyrant and dictator from the beginning of history. Such persons would be gravely concerned alike for the sanity and the patriotism of the author of Thoreau's essay on "Civil Disobedience" and highly scandalized at the opinion which Thomas Jefferson expressed in a letter written to Mrs. John Adams when he got news of Shays' Rebellion in Massachusetts:

The spirit of resistance to government is so valuable on certain occasions that I wish it to be always kept alive. It will often be exercised when wrong, but better so than not to be exercised at all. I like a little rebellion now and then. It is like a storm in the atmosphere.*

The fact of the matter is that the time has come for a pretty complete overhauling of some prevailing notions of law and for a readjustment of men's thinking to contemporary conditions as they actually are. When conduct and the law are at odds, the fault may lie with the law. The matter will at least repay being looked into. The theory that law is the outgiving of some indisputable sovereign power which has full authority and capacity to enforce its prescriptions, is an unsubstantial dream. There is no better definition of law than that it is such ordering of the social relations as is upheld by the general will. Laws are not made by legislatures or by courts except in form, save in so far as the general will accepts them. No law which has to do with human thought or speech or conduct can by any possibility be enforced. The classic illustration is Galileo's famous *Eppur si muove*, which, even if apocryphal in fact, is wholly true in spirit. No fewer than three states of the American Union have indulged in the legislative stupidity of enacting statutes to forbid the teaching of the doctrine of evolution in schools supported in

* *The Writings of Jefferson*, collected and edited by Paul Leicester Ford (G. P. Putnam's Sons: New York, 1894), IV, 370.

any degree by public funds. The folly of this proceeding can only be excelled by its fruitlessness. For the encouragement of the people of the states of Arkansas, Mississippi and Tennessee and that they may not weary in well-doing, the fact may be recorded that it is only 312 years since the Congregation of the Index censured the classic but wicked work of Copernicus, *De revolutionibus orbium celestium*.

Violation of a law of this kind may, if society chooses, be criminally punished, but that is a quite different matter from enforcing the law. Such a law is not, and cannot be, enforced, simply because it is by nature unenforceable. If it is accepted and acted upon, well and good. Otherwise it is a dead letter, with occasional outbursts of official industry directed toward the punishment of its violators. All this is true of the thousand and one compulsions, prohibitions, and restrictive regulations of one sort or another, both legislative and administrative, which crowd our American statute books and which are the joy and delight of the legalistically minded.

The cure for lawlessness is not to pass more laws, still less to inflict more rigid, more severe and more cruel punishments for law violation. These can only be more or less futile and aggravating expedients. The true cure is first not to enact or promulgate laws which the general will does not or will not accept, and then to train that general will to a habit of intelligent self-discipline which will make it law-abiding and law-conforming when it accepts laws as just and right. The treatment of the criminal, with a view to his detention if incorrigible and to his training back to useful citizenship if he be the contrary, is another matter and a very large one upon which it would be inappropriate to enter here.

These considerations point to the necessity of overhauling much of that part of the social fabric which is called law. There are several and excellent plans on foot to restate the law, but a care must be had that in these restatements there are not enshrined

and given new life old errors and fallacies which it is high time were left behind altogether. The present task is to examine the legal structure of society in the light of its present-day moral, economic and business structure and to ascertain where the path of progress begins and in what direction it will lead. It is fortunate for Columbia University and for the nation that the Faculty of Law has entered upon just this task with great enthusiasm, with large and wide learning and with practical sagacity. Out of this effort there should come, and doubtless will come, important and constructive contributions not only to the work of law schools and the teaching of law, but to a better understanding of the whole field embraced under the general term Legal. It may well be that we shall discover among the mass of statutes, precedents and judicial decisions which now confront us, some that are Law, some that are Partly Law, some that are No Law and some that are Anti-Law. If it be urged that all statutes, judicial decisions and administrative rulings that have the form of law have also by reason of that very fact the full force and authority of law, then one can only sigh and repeat softly the immortal words of Mr. Bumble: "If the law supposes that, the law is a ass — a idiot . . . and the worst I wish the law is, that his eye may be opened by experience — by experience." *

NOVEMBER 1, 1929

In the last Annual Report some considerations were presented concerning lawlessness and the law and the duty of the University in regard thereto. The year that has passed has seen constant and continuing discussion of this subject throughout the United States. Signs are appearing that the real facts in relation to this vitally important matter are beginning to be understood, and that an increasing number of persons are coming to see that in the search for means to remedy a grievous situation the place to begin is not with lawlessness but with law itself. Lawlessness is

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 34-38.

easy to observe, to understand and to rebuke, but law presents many more and subtler difficulties and it is here that the seat of the trouble is to be found.

As was pointed out a year ago, not everything which comes clothed in the garb of law is really law. To get at law one must go behind constitutions and statutes and judicial decisions and find out what public opinion has to say about any or all of these. Law is only one mode and method of social control, and there are at least two other modes which are superior to it. The first is the conduct and manners of a gentleman, and this includes the second, which is conduct according to the highest standard of morals. Those persons whose lives are guided and fashioned by either of these modes of social control are on a much higher plane than if they were merely law-abiding.

This is one reason why the widely heard cry for law enforcement is so meaningless. It usually reflects merely the demand of the fanatic for the punishment of violators of some particular law in which he is interested. If law enforcement meant the enforcement of all law, then the social order, at least in the United States, would quickly be afflicted with paralysis, partly because of the absurdity of many of these laws and partly because of their open conflicts with each other. It ought to be clear then that the legalistic demand that all law be obeyed and respected because it is the law is the reverse of reasonable. Free men from the beginning of time have followed the contrary course, and few things are more certain than that they will continue to do so. Thomas Jefferson, Ralph Waldo Emerson and Abraham Lincoln were all of this mind, and surely theirs are names to conjure with.

There is no ground whatever for the conventional statement that violation of one law, or disrespect for it, leads to the disregard of all law. The contrary is the case. Lawlessness is selective, and unbroken human experience goes to prove that a man may hold one law in utter contempt and yet have high respect for the great body of law of the land in which he lives.

There is a higher lawlessness and a lower lawlessness. The

higher lawlessness is essentially law-abiding, and the law by which it abides is far higher as well as far more fundamental than any casual or temporary statute can possibly be. Much of this higher and deeper law finds its basis in morals, and much of it is firmly embedded — or was until recently firmly embedded — in the Constitution of the United States.

The lower lawlessness is plain, ordinary selfishness, violence and greed. No progress will be made in illuminating this entire field of lawlessness until discrimination is made between that lawlessness which is law-abiding and that lawlessness which is law-breaking. In his First Inaugural, President Grant made the oft quoted statement that "I know no method to secure the repeal of bad or obnoxious laws so effectual as their strict construction." But he was quite wrong. That is not the method by which bad or obnoxious laws are gotten rid of. Not one in a hundred of such laws is ever repealed. They are kept upon the statute book and simply allowed to die a quiet death and to pass into that state which President Cleveland so graphically described as one of "innocuous desuetude."

It is well that this discussion should go on, and that more and more men should come to see how tangled the situation really is and how difficult it will be to find escape from it save by a pretty complete reconstruction of prevailing popular conceptions of law and lawlessness. The purely legalistic mode of approach and the purely legalistic point of view will get us nowhere. To make real progress there must be such searching examination of the foundations and content of our whole legal system as that upon which the Faculty of Law has entered so energetically.

When one observes the defiance of the Constitution for a decade by the Congress of the United States in order that it may protect a part of its present membership, or the constant breaking over of its constitutional limitations by the United States Senate in order to gratify its whims or to flatter its vanity, and when one observes the courts themselves whittling away at the foundations of the law and government from fear of noisy and

pestilent groups, and yet all of these all the while proclaiming the supremacy of law and demanding law enforcement, one recites to himself these words of John Bunyan:

Some things are of that nature as to make
One's fancy chuckle, while his heart doth ache.*

RELATION TO THE COLLEGE

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

The four distinct and original attempts at university building in the United States, and the only four, were those made at Columbia College under the stimulus of President Barnard, and those that were guided by President Gilman, President White, and President Eliot. Their plans and efforts were imitated, sometimes with variation, at many other centers of higher education, but there were no other distinct undertakings that rank in originality or significance with theirs. When President Harper threw his immense energy and great administrative skill into building the University of Chicago, he took something from the Columbia plan, something from the Johns Hopkins plan, and something from President White's plan, and welded these together into a new and successful whole.

The first essential in the task of building a true university is to understand what a university really is and how it is to be distinguished from the college, the technical school, or any other type of educational institution. "A university is not to be confounded with a college, however large or however ancient, or with a college and a surrounding group of technical or professional faculties or schools. A university is any institution where students, *adequately trained by previous study of the liberal arts and sciences*, are led into special fields of learning and research by teachers of high excellence and originality; and where, by the agency of libraries, museums, laboratories, and publications, knowledge is conserved, advanced, and disseminated." †

* Report for 1928-29, pp. 43-45.

† Nicholas Murray Butler, Introduction to Paulsen's *German Universities: Their Character and Historical Development* (New York, Macmillan Company, 1895), p. xiv.

It is important and highly interesting to note that the distinction between the four plans above referred to is to be found in their treatment of the American college. President Barnard and President White would cut the four-year American college course in half and treat the latter half as constituting the beginning of true university study. President Gilman would dispense with the college entirely and leave its work to be done by institutions that were avowedly colleges and nothing else. President Eliot would transform the college into a university by altering the spirit and methods of its instructions and by raising its standards of admission. Now that a half century has passed, it is possible to look back and see what has happened to these four plans. Today they do not seem to be so far apart as they did when they were first formulated and urged. The prescribed four-year college course has practically disappeared, but the free elective system speedily developed so great abuses that a brake has been put on it almost everywhere. The combined college and university course, which is the essential point in the Columbia plan and in that of President White, has been widely adopted wherever university colleges exist. Of course, it cannot be developed in the case of the separate college.

Granted that the standards for entrance, and therefore the age of admission, are about the same for the separate college as for the university college, then the separate college will shortly find itself face to face with the problem of how to meet a situation which requires the youth to spend one or two years more than are either necessary or desirable in preparing himself for a career which requires professional training after college graduation. A few institutions have proposed to solve this problem by permitting members of their fourth year or Senior Class to enter upon a professional course of study at a university, and on the satisfactory completion of the first year of such a course, to return to their college to receive the baccalaureate degree. This method of meeting the situation, however, is not popular, because, however logical it may be, it runs counter to some of the strongest traditions and interests of college life and college association.

It seems plain, then, that for some time to come the United States will have not one system of college education, but two such systems. It will have the system peculiar to the separate college and the system characteristic of the university college. Time, and time alone, can tell which system will better serve both scholarship and the public interest. It may be that social and economic conditions will permit the indefinite continuance of the two systems side by side.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

The careless and uncritical use of words is responsible for much, if not for most, of the unclear thinking which is so much in evidence all round about us. Higher education in the United States suffers, and has long suffered, very greatly from the careless use of terms. On the Continent of Europe, a *lycée* or a *Gymnasium* is a perfectly definite type of school. So also a university, despite minor differences between institutions in different lands, is substantially one and the same thing. Unfortunately, the Continental universities were, almost without exception, unfriendly to the various movements which, beginning about a century ago, endeavored to bring more of man's occupations and interests than law, medicine, and theology within the scope of the university's organization and under university influence. Therefore, schools of engineering, and later schools of politics, of business, of architecture, and of journalism, where these exist at all, were, unhappily, left outside of the sphere of university control and university influence. On the Continent of Europe, therefore, these subjects have been largely turned over to specialized institutions of various types, which tend always to become more and more vocational in character and thereby to lose the benefit of the spirit and methods of university work.

The college was originally a house of residence, and the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge were built out of, rather than upon, colleges. Only in recent years have these universities be-

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 15-17.

gun to reach out into the university sphere, as that is delimited on the Continent, and to undertake systematically what is known in the United States as graduate work. In this country we have a veritable hodgepodge of higher educational institutions. We have colleges which are not colleges; we have universities which are colleges; and we have universities which are neither colleges nor universities. Only in the State of New York are the terms college and university formally protected by statute. Elsewhere the term university may apparently be claimed by anybody or given to anything that may please the fancy. Under such circumstances, it is exceptionally difficult to make clear to the general public, even to the intelligent public, what a true university is. There may be repeated here the definition of a university which was first formulated and stated thirty-five years ago:

In the United States a university is not to be confounded with an undergraduate college however large or however famous, or with an undergraduate college and a surrounding group of associated technical and professional faculties or schools. A true university is a society of scholars having authority to confer academic degrees and distinctions, by whom students, adequately trained through previous study of the liberal arts and sciences, are led into special fields of learning and research by teachers of high excellence and originality; and where, by the agency of libraries, museums, laboratories, and publications, knowledge is conserved, advanced, and disseminated.

This definition states three essentials of a true university in the United States. The first is that the society of scholars which constitutes it must have authority to confer academic degrees and distinctions; the second is that the students who come to it must have been adequately trained, through previous study of the liberal arts and sciences, to be led into special fields of learning and research; and the third is that by the agency of libraries, museums, laboratories, and publications, knowledge is conserved, advanced and disseminated. If the students who are enrolled in a given institution have had but the ordinary secondary school training, they are not adequately trained through previous study of the liberal arts and sciences for true and helpful university

work. If there be a society of scholars which teaches merely, but does nothing either to advance or to disseminate knowledge, then the institution to which this body of scholars belongs, admirable though it may be, is not a university. The essential point is that the university must offer training in scholarship and service to those who are mature enough and well trained enough to profit by what the university shall offer, and that it shall constantly aim at the advancement of knowledge and the discovery and interpretation of new truth.

It is perhaps too late to hope that the tangle into which the terms college and university have gotten themselves in the United States can ever be straightened out. It would be an immense gain for clear thinking could this be done, and it would advance the interests of every college and of every university, properly so called, to do it.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

It is not easy to put oneself back, in this year of grace, into the state of mind which commonly prevailed in the American academic societies of fifty years ago. There were changes and rumblings of change, but only here and there was there any clear consciousness of what might or should happen, and only here and there was there any vision which marked true leadership. Universities were being born in America and there were not more than a half dozen men in all the land who really understood what it was all about or who participated in commanding fashion in the doing of it. There was, on the one hand, the attempt to transform the American college into an analogue of the Continental university by raising the standards of admission, by making the program of study elective, and by changing the methods of instruction then used. There was the attempt, or rather the suggestion of an attempt, to bring into existence a university of the Continental type without any undergraduate college whatsoever, thereby looking upon all the undergraduate

* Report for 1930-31, pp. 21-22.

colleges of the land as alike its natural feeders. Then there was the plan, which appealed to Professor Burgess and into the execution of which President Barnard threw his whole heart and soul, to build a true university of the Continental type upon the American college as foundation, not destroying or abandoning that college, but retaining it and maintaining it, not alone for its historic associations but as a practical link in the general system of higher education as it then existed throughout the United States. The half century which has passed has seen many and various changes, but on the whole it is the plan of university building that President Barnard and Professor Burgess proposed and expounded which has most strongly commended itself and which has been most generally followed. One result, which was, however, not at all unexpected either by President Barnard or by Professor Burgess, has been to require the American college itself to enter upon a prolonged course of introspection and to give answer to many questions as to its place in the educational system of the land and as to its methods and ideals. It soon became evident that if the conventional secondary school and the conventional college were to be maintained, with their substantially prescribed and highly standardized programs of study, the university could not claim its students coming from such secondary schools and colleges until an age which itself was unduly late and which, in addition, would postpone entrance upon productive life activity, in many cases at least, to nearly, if not quite, thirty years of age. In other words, it became apparent that as a matter of practical necessity ways and means must be found to reproduce in the American system of higher education, with its three-fold stages of secondary school, college and university, the advantages of the Continental system, with its two-fold stages of *lycée* or *Gymnasium* and university, and the advantages of the English system with its two-fold stages of public school and university.

Unless the American secondary school was to be extended into what had been the domain of the liberal arts college, and that

college itself either abandoned or reduced to the status of a glorified secondary school, there was but one way in which the desired arrangement could be brought about, and that was the way followed in the building of the Columbia University of today. By this plan, the secondary school and the liberal arts college were to continue to hold their traditional relationship, as well as retain their traditional fields of educational endeavor, while the upper years of the liberal arts college program were to be dovetailed, so to speak, into the work of the university, so that the resulting three-fold organization of American higher education — secondary school, college and university — while retaining its own peculiar and useful characteristics, could secure the advantages of the two-fold system of higher educational organization — public school, *lycée* or *Gymnasium*, and university — which the long experience of Europe had worked out. In practice, this meant that the student in the liberal arts college might select a program of study during the last year or last two years which was part and parcel of the advanced professional study at which he aimed, while, on the other hand, he might, if he chose, continue to pursue the program of study solely in the field of the liberal arts and sciences until the baccalaureate degree was obtained. This is the so-called combined college and university course which was introduced at Columbia as a result of the early experience of the School of Political Science, a graduate school for advanced study and research which originally accepted students who had satisfactorily completed their third year of undergraduate work in a liberal arts college. In practical operation, the plan of the combined college and university course has worked exceedingly well. Such shortcomings as it developed in the early part of its history were quickly detected and remedied, and it has long since passed into an accepted and well-recognized form of the organization of higher education in the United States.

What will be the effect of this form of organization of higher education upon the separate American college a generation

hence? This is a most important question, since the separate American college — the small college as it is sometimes, but quite improperly, called — is one of the sources of pride and glory in present-day American intellectual life. These separate and widely scattered institutions have often, under very trying conditions and with very inadequate resources, summoned to their aid the services of devoted and accomplished scholars who have held aloft the torch of learning in literally hundreds of widely scattered communities and who have kept before the American people the ideals which the disinterested study of the liberal arts and sciences always pursues. If these colleges of the liberal arts maintain sound and satisfactory conditions of admission, they cannot hope indefinitely to attract large companies of students who are looking forward to graduate study and to a professional career, in competition with the colleges which, organized in a university system, can offer the attractions and advantages of the combined college and university course. On the other hand, for these separate colleges to lower their standards of admission, or to consider discontinuance of their efforts and energies, would be a calamity of the first magnitude. In a certain number of cases, such institutions will doubtless, because of their equipment, their endowments, and their traditions, be able to continue substantially as now and to attract a steady body of students of high character and quality. For most of these separate colleges, however, the probable outlook seems quite different. It would appear that these institutions, inadequately equipped and insufficiently endowed, must either be reduced to the status of junior colleges or glorified secondary schools, or must go out of existence entirely. Either alternative would be deplorable.

There is another course of action beginning to be apparent which presents itself as an invitation to the many separate colleges of this type, and that is, their incorporation, without loss of individuality or change of situation, in the educational system of a neighboring university which could offer them the contact, the encouragement, and the opportunities for combined college

and university work denied to institutions of their type which remain wholly separate and apart from the university development now going forward in the United States. Any college of the liberal arts so incorporated in a university educational system would give up nothing, but gain much. It would retain its name, its situation, its traditions, its separate corporate existence and authority, and would add to all these the strength and the stimulus which intimate university companionship would have to offer.

Great movements in the organization of human society do not take place all at once. It requires many years to bring into effective existence the true American university, although the quick springing into life of the Johns Hopkins University more than a half century ago offers an exception to the general rule. The predicted changes in the status and relationships of the American college will not come to pass suddenly or in uniform fashion. These will take time. The main thing, in whatever changes are to be brought about, is to make sure that the separate college of liberal arts, the so-called small college, is strengthened, not weakened, and kept in position and in power to do its vitally important work for the better education of American youth.

New evidence that the ideals and work of the college of liberal arts itself as distinguished from the university, whether a college of this type be included in the university's educational system or not, is given by the striking and more than usually important volume entitled, *Five College Plans*, which has just now been published by the Columbia University Press. The contributors to this volume are the Dean of Columbia College, the Dean of Harvard College, the President of Swarthmore College, the President of Wabash College, and the Dean of the College of Arts, Literature and Science in the University of Chicago. It will be observed that three of the colleges whose plans are discussed and described are included in a university educational system, while two are separate colleges. A careful reading of this volume will show not only how the plans of these various insti-

tutions differ, but how far they are in agreement in fundamental questions relating to their purposes and ideals.

One very grave limitation on the usefulness of any type of educational institution, be it elementary school, secondary school, or college, is to regard it solely as a step in preparation for something other and more advanced than itself. As a matter of fact, the elementary school, the secondary school and the college have each and all their distinct aims and purposes, and there are very many students enrolled in each who do not remain, and in very many cases should not be encouraged to remain, under systematic educational direction in an institution of a type more advanced than that whose program they have just completed. Especially is this true as regards the relations which should exist between the secondary school and the college of liberal arts. The requirements for admission to the college of liberal arts should be set and adhered to from the viewpoint of the work of the college itself, and without the slightest notion of limiting or restricting the work of the secondary school in fitting students to meet those requirements. Indeed, under normal conditions, it is quite within the bounds of probability that not more than 10 or 15 percent of those who in any one year complete the program of a secondary school would look forward to a course of study in a college of liberal arts. Gainful occupation on the one hand, and vocational preparation of some highly specialized type on the other, will appeal, and should appeal, to a very considerable proportion of those students who are to be graduated from a secondary school. The very large proportion of graduates of leading American colleges who are now going forward to university work of one form or another indicates that the college, without restricting the opportunities which it offers to those who wish to pursue the study of the liberal arts and sciences for their own sake alone, is rapidly feeling its way toward a sound and helpful relationship with university work, whether that takes the form of advanced study and research in the field of the liberal arts and sciences themselves or of professional study of true

university grade and method. Bureaucracy is always the enemy of opportunity and of largest satisfaction of the needs of individual capacity and individual ambition. It is an ever present task of educational administration to keep that bureaucracy which large and many-sided organization naturally calls into existence for its aid, from becoming an end in itself rather than a means to a much larger, freer and finer end.*

OVERORGANIZATION IN EDUCATION

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

So far as education is concerned, there has been overorganization for a long time past. Too many persons are engaged in supervising, in inspecting and in recording the work of other persons. There is too much machinery, and in consequence a steady temptation to lay more stress upon the form of education than upon its content. Statistics displace scholarship. There are, in addition, too many laws and too precise laws, and not enough opportunity for those mistakes and failures, due to individual initiative and experiment, which are the foundation for great and lasting success.

It is now proposed to bureaucratize and to bring into uniformity the educational system of the whole United States, while making the most solemn assurance that nothing of the kind is intended. The glory and the successes of education in the United States are due to its freedom, to its unevennesses, to its reflection of the needs and ambitions and capacities of local communities, and to its being kept in close and constant touch with the people themselves. There is not money enough in the United States, even if every dollar of it were expended on education, to produce by federal authority or through what is naïvely called coöperation between the federal government and the several states, educational results that would be at all comparable with those that have already been reached under the free and natural system that has grown up among us. If tax-supported education

* Report for 1930-31, pp. 24-29.

be first encouraged and inspected, and then little by little completely controlled, by central authority, European experience shows precisely what will happen. In so far as the schools of France are controlled from the Ministry of Education in Paris, they tend to harden into uniform machines, and it is only when freedom is given to different types of school or to different localities, that any real progress is made. Anything worse than the system which has prevailed in Prussia would be difficult to imagine. It is universally acknowledged that the unhappy decline in German university freedom and effectiveness, and the equally unhappy subjection of the educated classes to the dictates of the political and military ruling groups, were the direct result of the highly centralized and efficient control from Berlin of the nation's schools and universities. For Americans now to accept oversight and direction of their tax-supported schools and colleges from Washington would mean that they had failed to learn one of the plainest and most weighty lessons of the war. It is true that education is a national problem and a national responsibility; it is also true that it has been characteristic of the American people to solve their most difficult national problems and to bear their heaviest national responsibilities through their own action in the field of liberty rather than through the agency of organized government. Once more to tap the federal treasury under the guise of aiding the states, and once more to establish an army of bureaucrats in Washington and another army of inspectors roaming at large throughout the land, will not only fail to accomplish any permanent improvement in the education of our people, but it will assist in effecting so great a revolution in our American form of government as one day to endanger its perpetuity. Illiteracy will not be sensibly diminished, if at all, by federal appropriations, nor will the physical health of the people be thereby improved. The major portion of any appropriation that may be made will certainly be swallowed up in meeting the cost of doing ill that which should not be done at all. The true path of advance in education is to be found in the direction of

keeping the people's schools closely in touch with the people themselves. Bureaucrats and experts will speedily take the life out of even the best schools and reduce them to dried and mounted specimens of pedagogic fatuity. Unless the school is both the work and the pride of the community which it serves, it is nothing. A school system that grows naturally in response to the needs and ambitions of a hundred thousand different localities, will be a better school system than any which can be imposed upon those localities by the aid of grants of public money from the federal treasury, accompanied by federal regulations, federal inspections, federal reports and federal uniformities.

It is fortunate that Columbia University, a public institution, was founded and is supported by the State in the field of liberty, and that it is free to carry on its work beyond the reach of the deadening hand of government.*

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 21-23.

III

THE UNIVERSITY AND RESEARCH

THE NATURE AND FUNCTION OF RESEARCH

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

IT was Garrick, a great admirer of George Whitefield's preaching, who said that Whitefield's eloquence was so persuasive that he could reduce his hearers to tears merely by uttering the word Mesopotamia. The word research has come to be something like the blessed word Mesopotamia. It is used to reduce everyone to silence, acquiescence and appropriation. The fact of the matter is that something between 75 percent and 90 percent of what is called research in the various universities and institutes of the land is not properly research at all, but simply the rearrangement or reclassification of existing data or well-known phenomena. This rearrangement and reclassification are important, no doubt, and sometimes highly significant, but it is an error to confuse them with a genuinely new contribution to the sum total of human knowledge or human understanding. Not many persons in any one generation are capable of real research. This requires not only a special type of intellectual endowment, but also a special sort of temperament. The breakers of genuinely new paths through the field of knowledge are almost, if not quite, as rare as those who are really poets. It is well to bear these facts in mind in estimating the value of what is reported as the result of an original investigation. An original investigation may, and usually does, add a good deal to the knowledge of the human race. It is none the less laudable on that account. The spirit of research is that which is to be encouraged, supported, and persistently developed, if a university is really to live and to progress. It is the spirit in which the university teacher approaches and interprets his subject, and the spirit of inquiry which he communicates to those younger scholars who

surround him, which are the important things and which record the measure of a university's success in achieving its ideal.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1929

The spirit of inquiry which is the distinguishing mark of the true university dominates Columbia in its every part. The constant search for new truth, for deeper and surer interpretation of facts and phenomena already known, and the open-minded weighing of new ideas go forward steadily in every department of knowledge and furnish the most stimulating of environments for serious-minded youth. The world, and particularly the American world, is filled with those who are not willing to permit discussion of that which is unfamiliar or odd, or which conflicts with established and cherished belief and practices. It has become customary to describe this frame of mind and this point of view as Fundamentalism, but as a matter of fact that is precisely what it is not. Fundamentals are those secure and underlying principles and those lofty and dominating ideals which furnish liberty both with its bases and its goal. No one who is firmly grounded in fundamentals can possibly have the closed and intolerant mind of him whom it is now customary to describe as a Fundamentalist.

Intolerance quickly expresses itself in persecution, and persecution begets fanaticism of the most dangerous type. He who cannot hear his belief and convictions assailed has not come under the influence of the university spirit and is in no sense a truly educated man. Liberty of necessity involves tolerance and should beget it. . . .

From the point of view of the University student, the important thing is not the magnitude or the weight of the task upon which he is engaged, but the fact that engagement upon it keeps him looking constantly out toward the horizon of knowledge. Much that is petty, much that is insignificant, not a little that is misleading will often result from these inquiries. But, on the

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 37-38.

other hand, the spirit of inquiry itself will keep alive and awake all those whom it animates, and will from time to time result in very considerable additions to man's knowledge of himself and of the world in which he lives.*

THE PROBLEM OF SEPARATE RESEARCH FOUNDATIONS

NOVEMBER 6, 1911

Having regard to the future development of universities in the United States and to the policies which Columbia University, in particular, should adopt as its own, careful attention must be paid to the part which is now played, and will perhaps be played increasingly in the future, by separate endowed research institutions, such as the Carnegie Institution at Washington, the Rockefeller Institute in New York, the Imperial Cancer Research Fund in London, the Institut Pasteur in Paris, and the Kaiser Wilhelm Institut in Berlin. It may be urged that it would have been wiser not to establish these undertakings apart from universities, but rather in connection or association with them. In the mind of the writer there is no doubt as to the soundness of this criticism. No inconsiderable sums of money would have been saved and a larger measure of public benefit would have been rendered had these institutions been associated with universities from the outset. The fact is, however, that of those named only the Kaiser Wilhelm Institut is in close relation to a university, and that, for reasons which are numerous and complex, it is not at all unlikely that great foundations of this kind bearing the names of individual donors will continue to be established as separate undertakings. When these research institutions are established as separate undertakings they diminish, and must diminish, for a time at least, the scientific productivity of the universities of the country; for the men whose services they seek are naturally those most accomplished and experienced in research work, as well as most successful in it. The places left

* Report for 1928-29, pp. 58-59.

vacant by men thus withdrawn from university service cannot be filled speedily, if at all, by men of the same capacity, for the reason that just as any given community produces but few poets and artists, so it produces but few men of unusual accomplishment in scientific research. On the other hand, it may safely be predicted that the men who withdraw from universities for the purpose of concentrating upon special problems of their own, will soon come to miss the stimulus and the satisfaction of having about them a band of eager disciples from whom are to be selected those who will continue the scientific methods and the scientific traditions of the master. These institutions for research, unless human nature loses some highly characteristic attributes, will begin before very long to make place, if not for students so called, then certainly for apprentices who will be given opportunity, while assisting the leaders in the various fields of research, to gain certain more or less formal instruction and to obtain more or less definite assistance from the older men. When this happens, we shall have the spectacle of a number of torsos of universities spread about the world, and then the uneconomical and unwise character of this separate development will be apparent to every one, and attempts, perhaps crude and partial, will be made to overcome the resulting embarrassments and difficulties.

This whole problem of the relation between universities and independent institutes for research formed the subject of interested discussion at the recent sessions in Dresden of the *Deutscher Hochschulehrertag*. Divergent views found expression in the discussions, but the seriousness of the problem presented was fully recognized by all who spoke upon the subject.

If the views expressed above are correct, the inference is that Columbia University should in no wise slacken its endeavors to build up great research undertakings because of the existence of separate research institutions. The notion that a man who is engaged in teaching advanced students cannot find the time or get the individual detachment necessary for investigation is an illu-

sion, and is flatly contradicted by the personal history of nine out of every ten of the leading scientific investigators of the last one hundred years. Some of the very best and most original work that has been done by scientists and scholars has been done by men who were not only engaged in teaching, but who were literally overburdened with teaching duties and denied any suitable scientific equipment. Genuis has a way of its own of surmounting the obstacles which to its feeble imitators seem mountains high. The life blood of Columbia University is the spirit of eager inquiry and research which permeates the teaching staff and the constant stream of important publications which go out bearing the University's name. To check this in any way would mean, first stagnation and then a relapse into permanent mediocrity.*

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

The time will soon come when to the other research undertakings of the University there may be wisely added an Institute of Industrial Research, the scope of which shall include not merely the strictly engineering problems of industry, but also those human problems upon the proper solution of which the permanent effectiveness of industry must ultimately depend. The work of this institute would invite the coöperation of the engineer, the psychologist, the economist and the sociologist.†

RESEARCH AND AGRARIAN LIFE

NOVEMBER 5, 1923

Closely associated with the foregoing topic [research in the fields of the social sciences], and indeed intimately related to it, are the problems of rural life. In almost every nation these problems are presenting themselves in new and urgent forms. The drift of population to city centers and the distaste of the younger

* Report for 1910-11, pp. 33-36.

† Report for 1920-21, p. 13.

generation for rural life and the work of the farm, are rapidly bringing about conditions which will gravely affect not only the economic basis of modern life, but also social and educational interests and ideals. Since men must live, agriculture cannot be displaced as the basic industry. Therefore the land, in the largest sense of the word, challenges modern scholarship and modern human interest in a score of ways. A generation ago, Henry George saw this and pressed it upon public attention with marked eloquence and vehemence. His proposed solution for the problems growing out of the land is not one which either economists or public opinion have been disposed to accept. The fact remains, however, that some solution for the problems of the land and its relationship to human life should and must be found.

It is within the province, and certainly within the field of interest, of Columbia University to attack this problem with all its resources. A first step might well be to establish and maintain a research institute or other organization for investigation, instruction, and the spread of public information concerning the fundamental problems of the land not only in this country but in other countries as well. The various agricultural colleges and the government departments of agriculture in the nation and in the several states are all busily at work upon small parts of this great field. What is needed is an institute to integrate, to correlate, and to guide this vast undertaking, with a view to establishing and interpreting the facts for the information of public opinion and for the guidance of governments. One must be blind indeed not to see that there is an agrarian movement which is world-wide. Often this movement takes on a political form, and by so doing not infrequently injures the very interest which it aims to promote. It is obvious that the modern democratic state must find a way to keep the needful proportion of the population upon the land, to maintain the quality of the rural population in comparison with other groups, and to provide that population with the resources and satisfactions of modern civilization. The farmers themselves, the schools, the libraries, the churches,

the various agencies for public health and hygiene, are all greatly concerned about the changes that are taking place in rural life, about the economic situation of the farmer, and about his comparative isolation from many of those interesting and satisfying contacts which the city dweller finds on every hand. Here, surely, is an immense field of inquiry into which Columbia University should enter. Its company of investigators and teachers contains many whose work has to do with some aspects of these problems. A first task would be to bring these various individuals into coöperation and mutual understanding. A second task would be to multiply the opportunities of agencies for research in this field and to put at the head of such an Institute the most capable and experienced scholar anywhere to be found. By so doing, Columbia University would once more indicate its appreciation of the public need and its anxious endeavor to assist in meeting it.*

THE UNIVERSITY PRESS

NOVEMBER 4, 1907

The Press, since by far the greater number of its volumes have been written by authors connected in one way or another with the University, has been a most valuable aid in making known in this country and abroad, where many of its volumes have gone, the character and extent of the work which is accomplished in the various fields of scientific inquiry at a representative American university.

It was the avowed belief of those who proposed the organization of the Press, as stated in their original communication to the Trustees of the University, that the imprint, "The Columbia University Press," would be to the advantage and honor of the institution. The experience of these thirteen years has abundantly justified this prediction.

In still other directions the Press has exerted an influence of undoubted weight and benefit from within the University. It has

* Report for 1922-23, pp. 15-17.

been its object from the beginning to promote and encourage, so far as possible, the publication of works which in their particular way embody an actual contribution to the knowledge of the subject of which they treat, irrespective of their publishing value as a commercial undertaking. By the aid of the Press, it has been possible, in many cases, to secure the publication of scientific works of undoubted excellence, which on account of the narrow range of their interest could not be commercially profitable and consequently would not appeal to the general publisher. It is in this way particularly that a university press may exert its best and widest influence. It benefits the scholar by bringing the results of his work to the attention of the world of scholars and encouraging him to further production, and it benefits science by making new material accessible to other students and specialists. It benefits the university by extending the usefulness for which it has been created. A university press is at the present time not only an advantage, but a necessity in university development.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

Only little less important than the organization and stimulation of research is the adequate and appropriate publication of its results. It is the proper business of a university to support, or to coöperate in supporting, scholarly publications which, just because of their scholarship, make appeal to but a very limited number of students and readers. The cost of conducting such journals should not be left to chance, still less to become a burden upon the private means of scholars themselves. It should be a matter of pride to a university to be the seat of publication of a large number of varied journals whose sole reason for existence would be the recording and publication of the results of scholarly investigation. A number of such journals have been conducted for many years under the direction of members of Columbia University, and have added greatly to its reputation as

* Report for 1906-7, pp. 13-14.

a seat of higher learning and free inquiry. Very few of these journals are self-sustaining. A number of others are only maintained by the generous sacrifice of those who have founded them in fulfillment of their own scholarly ambitions. It is important that the Trustees should have at their disposal a fund the income of which might be applied, as circumstances suggest or require, to the establishment and maintenance of scholarly publications under the direction of members of the teaching staff.

A university has three general functions to perform: It is to conserve knowledge; to advance knowledge; and to disseminate knowledge: it falls short of the full realization of its aim unless, having provided for the conservation and advancement of knowledge, it makes provision for its dissemination as well.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

The year under review has seen the fortieth anniversary of the organization of that authorized plan of publication under University auspices which has now become the Columbia University Press. The story of the organization of this undertaking was first told in the Annual Report for 1907 and its later developments were discussed in the Annual Report for 1919. It is too often assumed that the function of a university press is only indirectly related to the work and ideals of a true modern university. On the contrary, it is essential to these, since the dissemination of knowledge as interpreted by highest scholarship is as vitally important as are its conservation and its advancement through research and discovery. President Gilman of the Johns Hopkins University thoroughly understood this fact and therefore included the organization and work of a university press in his original plans for that institution which his administrative foresight and ability brought into being nearly sixty years ago.

At Columbia, the first document bearing upon this subject is a communication presented to the Trustees on January 7, 1889, by the then Adjunct Professor of Philosophy, now President of the

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 21-22.

University, who proposed a plan for publishing the results of the studies and researches of officers and advanced students. After consideration, this proposal, while commended in principle, was thought to need fuller consideration, and therefore the communication was referred, with a general expression of approval by the Trustees, to the President, with the request that he should confer with the faculties of the several schools and obtain their views as to the practicability of the plan, with suggestions as to the proper means of carrying it into effect. A committee consisting of the Acting President and five professors, including the then Adjunct Professor of Philosophy, reported back to the Trustees on April 1, 1889, favoring the establishment of a Board of Publication which should have authority to begin the development of such a plan as had been proposed to the Trustees. No action was taken by the Trustees at that time. Again, on April 7, 1890, a committee consisting of President Low and six professors representing various faculties, submitted a still more elaborate report favoring the establishment of a Bureau or Department of Publications and setting out in some detail what such a Bureau or Department might be expected to accomplish. This report opened with the following very significant sentences:

Where original research is prosecuted, whether under the auspices of an endowed college or university, or of a learned society, provision must in time be made for publishing the contributions to knowledge which are the result of such research. These contributions to knowledge are always of a technical character and usually destitute of commercial value. They cannot, therefore, find a permanent record through the ordinary channels of publication. It is at once the duty and the privilege of the institution with whose sanction the investigations have been carried on, to assume the task of making public the results of the same.

While the Trustees approved in principle of this report, they hesitated to commit the corporation as such to the business of printing and publishing. Nevertheless, the fundamental idea which this report so succinctly expressed of the relation between scholarly research and publication took deep root in the mind of the faculties of that day and finally bore fruit in a letter addressed

to the Trustees of Columbia College under date of March 31, 1893. With the exception of President Low and the then Professor of Philosophy, the signers of this communication did not include any members of the committee which signed the report of April 7, 1890. The inference was plain that the interest in the development of this idea was now widespread throughout the University. In this communication it was stated that

As a consequence of the rapid development at Columbia of university work and university methods during the last few years, there is now produced at the College by professors, instructors and university students, a large amount of original work that is worthy of preservation, and which would, if the results were published with proper discrimination, reflect credit both upon the authors and upon the College. But advanced research has in all great institutions of learning created the need for university publication, and such is the experience of Columbia College; for, while the original work done by our officers and students offers, in many instances at least, a real contribution to knowledge, it is, nevertheless, of such a technical or special character as to be often unacceptable for commercial purposes to the general publisher. . . . We regard it as eminently desirable, if not essential to the full development of the College as a University, that a ready means of publishing really meritorious works should be provided, and that the character and extent of the work done in the University should be made known through publications bearing the imprint: "Columbia University Press." As the Trustees have, however, expressed the opinion that it is not expedient for the College, as a corporation, to undertake the business of printing and publishing, we propose, as a means of accomplishing the desired ends, to form a separate corporation, to be known as the "Columbia University Press," the primary object of which shall be to provide for the publication of literary works embodying the original research of our professors and university students. It is intended that the corporation, if formed, shall be under the exclusive control of persons officially connected with Columbia College. . . . Before taking any proceedings, however, to organize such corporation, further than to ascertain its practicability, we desire to obtain the sanction and approval of the Trustees, and to secure their consent to the use by the proposed corporation of the title and imprint, "Columbia University Press."

After consideration by their Committee on Education, the Trustees approved the plan outlined at their meeting of June 1,

1893, and the certificate of incorporation of the Columbia University Press was filed one week later.

Since the new undertaking was without funds, it is recorded that the Trustees of the Press, all of whom were officers of the University, themselves by private subscription met the first costs that were incurred. It was only in 1895, when President Low made to the Press a generous gift of \$10,000, that the new corporation was in any funds whatsoever. So restricted were the financial resources of the Press that its work of publication had to be done by contract with an established publishing house, and it was not until 1907 that the Press was able to take over the manufacture of its own books. Indeed, it was not until 1911 that the Press also took charge of offering these publications for sale.

From such very small beginnings the Columbia University Press grew slowly for thirty years. During that time it published 388 books and pamphlets. It was during this period that two projects of outstanding importance were undertaken. The first dates from 1908, when, on the occasion of the celebration of the tercentenary of John Milton's birth, it was discovered that no complete edition of the works of John Milton had ever been published, and it was proposed that the Press should undertake to publish a definitive edition. This plan was approved, a most competent group of scholars was appointed to edit the volumes, and their work culminated in the publication almost twenty-five years later of the first of what will be a series of eighteen volumes. The second important project was undertaken by the Press in 1910 and resulted in a most important series of scholarly works, "The Columbia University Records of Civilization," which now comprises sixteen stout volumes. The scope and activity of the Press remained limited, however, for a still longer period, and it is only during the last few years that this scope and activity have developed, under most devoted and wise direction, until the Press has become an indispensable instrumentality of the University's work and an ornament of which the University is justly proud.

As has already been stated, the Press published 388 different works during its first thirty years of existence. During the next five years, it published no fewer than 176 new titles and took over the publication of the "Studies in History, Economics and Public Law," with responsibility for the sale of the 269 titles that had already been issued in that series. During the five years last past, the Press has added 354 more titles to its list of publications. While in 1922 the gross sales of books issued by the Press amounted to but \$10,457, in 1927 they had risen to \$53,926. During the four years following, despite adverse economic conditions, there was an annual increase until a maximum of \$85,041 was reached in the year 1931. The year 1932 showed a slight decrease of 5 percent in this amount, which has already been offset by the increase during the first six months of 1933. The staff of the Press has published a dictionary-catalogue of all Columbia University Press titles, similar in effect to a card catalogue in a well-administered library and containing complete information about each book published, including a table of its contents. . . .

It is plain, therefore, that everything which those who first proposed the organization of the Press some forty-five years ago had in mind has been accomplished, and very much more than they could have foreseen. The work of the University in conserving and in advancing knowledge is now amply provided for in the field of its interpretation and dissemination for the benefit of the larger public.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

Just forty years ago it was pointed out that the word "university," while not to be confounded with a college however large or ancient or applied to a college or to a group of undergraduate technical or professional faculties or schools, should be defined as meaning any institution where students adequately trained by previous study of the liberal arts and sciences are led into fields of learning or research by teachers of high excellence or origi-

* Report for 1932-33, pp. 40-45.

nality; and where, by the agency of libraries, museums, laboratories and publications, knowledge is conserved, advanced and disseminated.* It was then stated that the American university is not to be confused with the German *Gymnasium* or with a large college or with any other type of college, however old or distinguished. This definition of a university includes, it will be seen, the dissemination of knowledge. It is precisely this university function which the various university presses, now widely established in this country and in Great Britain, serve so admirably.

The Columbia University Press, after many years of slow and difficult beginnings, has under wise and farsighted management become a real power in the land and a source of new strength and distinction to the University whose instrumentality it is. Not only are the number and variety of the books which the Columbia University Press is publishing remarkable, but so is their excellence. *The Columbia Encyclopedia*, which has just now come from the press, is an outstanding monument of scholarly capacity, scholarly industry and scholarly coöperation. For years to come, this extraordinary volume will be used as a familiar book of reference in libraries, in schools and colleges, in clubs and in homes, because of its convenience, its compact size and its authority.

As the years pass it becomes more and more obvious that there is little use in extending the boundaries of knowledge and in multiplying available information, unless mankind can be led to make use of the results of such extension and multiplication. To accomplish this end no effort should be spared, since the education or uplifting of public opinion is the one hope of the world's progress, and it is to that education and uplifting that the University must devote its every effort. The twentieth-century university cannot do the full measure of its work without full and constant contact with the everyday life of man.

* Nicholas Murray Butler, *The Meaning of Education* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915), p. 265.

What the scholars and research workers discover in their several spheres of inquiry is quickly communicated to their immediate associates and fellow workers throughout the world, but it can only reach the general public, and thereby affect the general welfare, if the universities maintain those vigorous agencies for that dissemination of knowledge to every kind and class of population which must first precede and then accompany any really well-informed and reflective public opinion on the part of the people as a whole. Without such public opinion, the governments of the world must rock backward and forward from despotism to despotism, from incompetence to incompetence and from chaos to chaos.*

* Report for 1934-35, pp. 30-32.

IV

THE UNIVERSITY AND THE URBAN COMMUNITY

ADVANTAGES OF THE CITY

OCTOBER 6, 1902

THE whole form of modern university development has been conditioned by the growth of great cities. The life of the modern universities is becoming more and more of the urban type. Each of the world's great capitals which is or aims to be a center of influence in the largest sense of the word must and will be the home of a great university. That university will be national, or even international, in sympathy, scope, and influence. But it will be dependent in a large measure — when not, as in Europe, a governmental institution — upon the support of the city in which it is.

And it will of necessity reflect and extend the spirit and temper of that city. The drift of population into the great city centers is paralleled by the rapid growth of the number of students attending the city universities. While there is a difference of opinion as to the desirability of a city as a place of purely collegiate or undergraduate instruction, there is no doubt whatever as to the superiority of the city's opportunities and environment as a place of graduate, professional, and technical study. . . .

The reason for the vast and rapid development of the urban university is, as Cardinal Newman said two generations ago, that a city is by its very nature a university. It draws to itself men and women of all types and kinds; it is the home of great collections of art and science, and it affords abundant opportunities to come under the influence of the best music and the best literature of our time.

The great city, and especially New York, is intensely cosmopolitan, and contact with its life for a short time during the

impressionableness of youth is in itself a liberal education. . . . The tendency of American educational institutions once local to become truly national is a striking characteristic of the changes of the past quarter of a century. . . .

The great city universities in Europe and in America owe their leadership to the fact that they are intent upon research and the training of productive scholars on the one hand, and upon the development and support of the highest possible professional training on the other. Each of these institutions is proud of the fact that its faculties include a number of the unquestioned leaders in the world's science and the world's literature. It is the presence of men like these that constitutes a real university; and it is upon their influence and example that the university depends for its present and future usefulness.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

Columbia University has at its doors one of the greatest and most inviting laboratories in the world. New York City is a laboratory of almost unexampled magnitude and many-sidedness. Here are courts of every sort and kind for the observation and study of the student of law; here are hospitals and clinics without number for the observation and study of the student of medicine; here are engineering undertakings that cannot be matched, perhaps, anywhere in the world for the observation and study of the student of applied science; here are buildings of amazing variety and type for the observation and study of the student of architecture; here are colleges and schools reaching directly hundreds of thousands of human beings for the observation and study of students of education; here are museums of art and of natural history as well as a zoölogical park and botanical garden of unusual excellence for the observation and study of students of these subjects; here is a complex and highly organized municipal government, a congeries of nationalities, a constant stream of in-flowing immigration, for the observation and study of him who

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 68-70.

would know the social and political problems of today at first hand. An increasing proportion of the advanced and professional work of the University should be done in this laboratory. There should be coöperation at every possible point between the University teachers and the directors of this laboratory in its various departments and subdivisions, both official and unofficial. Here, as nowhere else in America, perhaps as nowhere else in the world, the advanced student may measure the working of different and opposing theories and may see the practical results of old and new tendencies and ideals. In this laboratory productive and inquiring scholarship can speedily test the results and proposals of these tendencies and ideals. Every year should see a larger number of graduate and professional students leaving the University filled with a new pride in the city of New York because they have come to know and to understand some one of the myriad admirable things that happen or are done there.*

THE WIDER UNIVERSITY

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

New ideas find their way slowly into closed minds. The most modern type of university has some difficulty in making itself understood. The newest type of university organization and influence, particularly as developed in Paris, on Morningside Heights, and now in London, while the direct and legitimate outgrowth of university development over nearly a thousand years, is something novel and intensely modern when in contrast with what has gone before. In these new developments every lofty ideal, every high purpose, and every disinterested undertaking which marked Bologna and Paris and Oxford in their earliest days is sacredly preserved and closely cherished. But the typical university of the twentieth century is no longer of the monastic or secluded type. It is not to be found in the village or the small town, in the secluded valley or on a remote hilltop. It is put where men congregate and work and think and act. The

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 26-27.

newly developed university immerses itself in the life of its time and aims always and everywhere to make its lofty ideals and its notable achievements in science, in letters, and in the arts, available to the largest possible number of men, that their lives may be uplifted and stimulated and guided. At no time was the university a mere school, and now it has become a school only in form. The twentieth-century university is conscious of its place as a public service institution in the field of truth-seeking, truth-preserving, and truth-distributing. If it dealt with books and with laboratories alone, it would quickly be felt to be a remote thing, quite apart from the interests and activities of men. Beyond books and laboratories, however, this university, whose natural home, as Cardinal Newman long ago pointed out, is the great city, deals with human nature, with human problems, with human aspirations, and with human accomplishments. For it no science is so pure, no knowledge so remote, that it cannot and should not be offered to men for their help and their uplifting.

Every human being who can read and who wishes to think is or can readily become a university student in the largest sense of the word. He may not be enrolled in university residence as candidate for a degree, but that belongs to the more formal side of the university's work and has to do only with the relatively few who are preparing themselves in scholarly fashion for some profession or career which rests upon well-organized and well-articulated knowledge. Public opinion, public understanding, public appreciation, public betterment are the aims of the present-day university which has from its very beginning made clear its place as one of the fundamental factors of human institutional organization. Destroy or suppress the truth-seeking instinct, and civilization will perish in short order. Destroy or suppress the truth-teaching instinct, and the truth seekers will speedily become a detached and esoteric group without influence upon the mass of mankind. They would be admirable museum pieces, but quite useless as factors in the life of men. . . .

Moreover, the University looks upon the widespread and momentous service of its scholars as University service in the truest and fullest sense of those words. Whether a member of the University staff is giving counsel in respect to the financial administration of a Canadian province, an American state, or a kingdom in the Balkans; or is studying the effects of the transition from agriculture to manufacture in Japan and in China; or offering skilled professional counsel in the erection of a great dam on the other side of the Rocky Mountains; or making meticulous study of the financial, economic, and social problems of post-war France; or reorganizing the educational system of a South American country or an African state; or offering professional service and advice as member of a duly appointed commission to serve the city, the state, or the nation; or directing the preparation and editing of a massive *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*; or guiding and inspiring advanced students of art and architecture in Rome; or giving counsel and aid in the restoration of the Parthenon; or pointing out how the agricultural prosperity of Greece can be quickly and notably advanced; or offering scholarly interpretation of their religion and philosophy to the Parsees of India and to the people of Persia; or helping the governments of Czechoslovakia, of Poland, and of various other countries to develop and strengthen their several systems of education; or guiding the deliberations of public bodies studying the important and vital matters of social insurance in this and other lands — it is always and everywhere University service. Columbia University interpenetrates the life of the nation and of the world in its every part and is glad indeed when its scholars and men of science are turned to, that the fruit of their knowledge and experience may be given to the service of that wider public in every land which lies far beyond the University's doors. Happy should be the generation which finds so rich a storehouse of learning and experience put gladly and willingly at its service.*

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 21-24.

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

Few things are more striking at the present time than the way in which the universities are called upon for technical guidance and skill in dealing with all sorts and kinds of public affairs. Hardly a month passes that from ten to twenty of the members of Columbia's society of scholars are not absent from Morning-side Heights for a longer or a shorter time in order to place their knowledge and their skill at the service of governments or of public undertakings of one sort or another. This intertwining of scholarship and of service is an essential part of the true university ideal. The day when the scholar might pass his time on a mountain top in a remote unpopulated section of his country has gone forever. The place of the scholar now is where men are. It is men, and the needs of men, that will best stimulate his thought and furnish it with high objective. "Where should the scholar live?" asked Longfellow, "In solitude, or in society? In the green stillness of the country, where he can hear the heart of Nature beat, or in the dark, gray town, where he can hear and feel the throbbing heart of man? I will make answer for him, and say, in the dark, gray town." *

The American poet's answer to his own question offers explanation of the university developments that have gone on, and are going on, in the great urban centers of the modern world — in London, in Paris, in Berlin, in New York, in Chicago, in Buenos Aires, in Tokyo. Cardinal Newman is justified once more, and the gray town is proving itself to be the natural home of the true university in these modern days.†

* Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, *Hyperion* and *Kavanagh* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1888), pp. 63-64.

† Report for 1930-31, p. 23.

V

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

THE SUMMER SESSION

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

THE work of Extension Teaching continues to grow, and as it grows it becomes increasingly useful. As first organized in England and also in this country, University Extension Teaching had its origin in a desire to spread university influence and university instruction over a wider area. It has now taken on the form of serious and systematic instructional work under the guidance of the most skilled university teachers and their associates. The time is at hand when more consideration must be given to work done by students in Extension Teaching. It must at once be admitted that no amount of teaching of this kind can ever take the place, from the standpoint of educational value and educational influence, of work carried on in academic residence with no distracting influences and no division of intellectual allegiance or interest. On the other hand, the solid character of the instruction given, the maturity of most of the students, the persistence with which they continue the work over a period of years, as well as the systematic ordering of the courses and their careful oversight by the Administrative Board and the Director, all point to the fact that academic credit should be given, to an extent yet to be determined, to students who successfully complete a series of courses of instruction taken in this way. No person may obtain a Columbia degree who has not been in residence in some part of the University for at least one academic year. The question may now fairly be raised as to whether the completion of some stipulated amount of work in Extension Teaching ought not to enable the student to be able to enter upon academic residence at a point where he might in due time qualify himself for graduation from some school or department of the Univer-

sity. It is certainly not wise, nor is it fair, to treat students in Extension Teaching as if they were merely in casual attendance upon courses of popular lectures. Extension Teaching has long since, particularly here at Columbia, outgrown that stage of its development.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

The Summer Session was projected in order to accomplish several distinct ends, all of which have been gained. One of these ends was to make some provision for the use of the University buildings and equipment during what had been the unduly long holiday period of over three months. Another was to make it possible for officers of instruction who could not afford to remain without remunerative occupation during so large a part of the year, to gain additional compensation while doing work that lay within the University's proper scope, and that might well contribute to extend the University's influence. Still another end was to put a stop to the exceptionally bad practice of permitting and even encouraging students to remain idle during a quarter of the entire calendar year, when it would be greatly to their advantage, mentally, morally and physically, to be engaged in systematic study and in preparation for their life work.

But the chief end in view when the Summer Session was established was quite distinct from any of these. It was to demonstrate the essential unity of the University and to provide one place in which that unity might manifest itself without the hampering limitations set by the traditions and regulations of the various colleges, schools and allied corporations included in the University's educational system, in order to prove not only the existence of the University's unity, but its obvious and manifold advantages. For this reason the Summer Session has been maintained from the beginning as a unit. No college, no school and no faculty shares jurisdiction over it, while each and every faculty in the exercise of its statutory power indicates for what

* Report for 1907-8, pp. 38-39.

work done in the Summer Session and to what extent it will give credit in preparation for the degree or degrees which are entrusted to its care. The result has been to develop an almost ideal educational organization. The conventional restrictions and limitations upon students are swept away, the need for discipline does not exist, and the entire attendance at the Summer Session is made up of those who come to it because they sincerely wish to gain some benefit from it. Moreover, dissipation of energy and attention are prevented by the regulations which strictly limit the number of courses of instruction that may be taken, and which provide for a daily exercise in every Summer Session course. This is in sharp contrast with the usual procedure during that portion of the academic year which begins in September and ends in June. During the latter period the student is permitted to carry on simultaneously as many as six or eight subjects of study, and he is expected to attend upon each of these once, twice or perhaps three times a week. Under certain conditions and in regard to some subjects of study this method has advantages which are well understood. The method of concentrating attention daily for six weeks upon two, or at most three, subjects of study, also has its advantages, and the Summer Session has made plain what these are. It would probably not be expedient to attempt to substitute one of these systems for the other, as each system serves well a particular purpose. On the other hand, it is a great source of strength to the University that a form of educational organization has been worked out which permits the use of both these widely different methods of education and which enables them to be compared and contrasted both by the same body of teachers and in no small part by the same body of students.

Moreover, the Summer Session has reproduced in a number of ways the freedom, spontaneity and general educational atmosphere which are recorded as having existed at the Bologna, the Paris and the Oxford of long ago. Use is made of music and of the drama, as well as of visits to points of historical and literary inter-

est, to refine the feelings, to educate the taste and to broaden the knowledge of the students who flock to the Summer Session from all parts of the American continent.*

ADULT EDUCATION AND HOME STUDY

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

After ten years' experience, the Summer Session has more than justified itself from every point of view. It is now proposed to extend the operation of the principles which have been successful in the case of the Summer Session so as to provide classes and laboratory work in the evening at the University and both in the evening and during the day in other parts of the city, as well as in neighboring parts of New Jersey, New York and Connecticut, for the benefit of those who are not able to avail themselves of the regular courses of instruction. In particular, evening classes will be organized where wage-earners as well as those who are engaged professionally or otherwise during the day may obtain the best instruction which the University can offer and which they are competent to take, to the end that they may be able to rise in their several callings and professions through greater knowledge of the subject matter with which those callings and professions deal. The temptation is very great to dwell at length upon this aspect of the University's service to the great population by which it is surrounded, but it will be more judicious, perhaps, simply to point out at present what is to be undertaken and to await the results of experience before attempting to appraise its full value and significance.†

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

In the same connection it is clear that the University may offer through Extension Teaching a new and important service to the city of New York and to the country. There are in and about New York thousands of adult aliens who look forward to be-

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 41-43.

† Report for 1909-10, pp. 33-34.

coming naturalized citizens of the United States. It is difficult for adult aliens to obtain any systematic instruction in the duties and privileges of American citizenship. They are left largely to the exploitation of political and philanthropic committees or to such individual efforts of their own as they are able to put forth. It is now recommended that through Extension Teaching there be organized a definite program of study to prepare adult aliens for American citizenship. . . .

Such a program of study for adult aliens might well include oral and written English; an outline of American history, economic as well as political; an outline of American politics, including the principles of the Constitution, the organization and development of political parties and a study of those questions that now most largely engage public attention; an outline of economics, with special application to present-day problems; and an outline of American literature, with biographical sketches of the leading American men of letters. Such a program of study successfully followed for a year or two would be of the greatest possible service in preparing the adult alien for the new duties and privileges that citizenship will bring to him. The children of aliens find excellent preparation for citizenship in the work of the public schools, but for the adult alien there is need of some such organized instruction as is now proposed.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

That part of the work of University Extension which is known as Home Study is developing in interesting fashion and may yet find ways and means to astonish the University by reason of its value and effectiveness. The Summer Session, and later University Extension, were both started without any considerable measure of University understanding or University sympathy, but both have proved, whatever their cost, invaluable adjuncts to the University's work and influence and are now universally held in high regard. Home Study, which is at present in

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 9-11.

the position of a Cinderella, may one day be transformed into a fairy Godmother. Only the surface of the problem of adult education has yet been scratched. Coöperation of the home, the library, the school, and the university are essential if the minds of mature men and women are not to be starved through lack of intellectual nourishment and stimulus. The professional, or perhaps rather the pedagogic, notion of education appears to be something which is carried on at enormous expense through the years of childhood and adolescence, and then brought to a sharp halt with graduation from some secondary school or possibly with a degree from some institution of college rank. After graduation, the individual is thrown upon his own resources in a rapidly changing world and left to keep track of it and to adapt himself to it as best he can. The education of youth is suffering from over-organization, from over-administration, and from hysterical over-emphasis. The continuing education of the adult, on the other hand, is suffering from lack of organization, from imperfect administration, and from no emphasis at all. If the formal education of childhood and adolescence amounts to anything, it gives to those who are privileged to receive it a taste and a zeal for knowledge. It inspires a curiosity which is, or ought to be, a moving force through life. If formal education does not do this, but simply stops against a blank wall of intellectual indifference and lassitude, then it has not been worth a tithe of the amount spent upon it. The formal education of youth and adolescence should pass, not abruptly but quite gradually, into life occupation. The two should be dovetailed and not separated by a wall. A division of time between school exercises and discipline on the one hand and ordered and useful occupation on the other is a desirable link between the work of the school and the work of life. What has been called in Europe the continuation school is an indispensable part of any public educational system. It would be difficult to spend too much time and thought upon this type of school and the problems, social, psychological, and economic, which it both raises and helps to solve. After the work of

the continuation school is ended, the field of adult education begins. Its instrument of greatest usefulness is the public library, and its organizing and directing force should be the scholarship of the university. Carefully planned courses of reading, attendance upon well-ordered series of lectures on subjects drawn from science, letters, art, politics, and the practical business of life, systematic visits to museums under competent guidance and direction, and groups formed for the study and discussion of particular topics of intellectual or ethical interest, are all agencies not only useful but indispensable if the mind of the adult is to be kept open, alive, and truly informed. Without these, that mind becomes a prey to the less worthy and less helpful types of journalism, daily, weekly, and monthly.

It is probable that very few minds are ever again as alert or as active as they are at about twenty-two or twenty-three years of age. When the pressure of formal instruction is removed and when the early stimulus of learning the elements of a trade or a profession has passed, the vast majority of human intelligences plod through life on a dead level. Only now and then is there evidence given in later years of real initiative, of mental alertness, and of productive intellectual power. The number of human beings, even those of some conspicuousness, who continue to grow in knowledge and in power after forty years of age is very small indeed. Observation indicates that those who are continuing to grow at forty will, in all likelihood, maintain that power of growth and achievement throughout life, however long. Well-ordered adult education might easily come to the rescue of vast numbers of those men and women who are, under present conditions, unconsciously sentenced to a life of dismal conformity to type without any genuine interest or intellectual activity. The Home Study work of University Extension is making ambitious plans to enter upon this field of public service and to cultivate it judiciously and eagerly. No one supposes that the methods of home study can displace the personal relationship of teacher and taught, or that it can compete with the closely

planned schemes of educational work that have stood the test of generations of use. What Home Study can do, however, is to carry the sparks of scholarship to the dry places of adult life, and light here and there a fire that will give both brightness and warmth to otherwise weary and shut-in lives. It is a noble and a splendid type of service which will well repay whatever effort may be spent in perfecting it.*

* Report for 1923-24, pp. 25-28.

VI

UNIVERSITY LEADERSHIP IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

EXCHANGE OF STUDENTS AND PROFESSORS

OCTOBER 6, 1902

FOR some time past my attention has been attracted by the fact that the great educational advantages of the reorganized French universities were not fully appreciated in the United States. While for more than a generation many of the best class of American students have passed one or more years in residence at a German university, and while the relationship between the English universities and those of the United States has always been more or less close, there has been no similar bond of adequate strength between the universities of France and our own. This has seemed to me unfortunate because of the many and strong reasons which exist for closer and more intimate knowledge of each other on the part of the peoples of France and of America. I have, therefore, undertaken to secure funds for the establishment at Columbia University of two fellowships, to be awarded annually, the holders to carry on their studies at one of the French universities.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1907

The public aspect of the professorship [for example, the Roosevelt and Kaiser Wilhelm Professorships] is not less important than its academic aspect. It is because universities are independent organs and representatives of public opinion, and because they are free from many of the limitations and trammels that surround formal diplomatic intercourse between governments, that they and their representatives can be most effective

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 62-63.

and most helpful in bringing the civilized nations of the earth nearer together. . . .*

NOVEMBER 6, 1911

Scholarship and science know no barriers of language or of race. They are and must naturally be potent unifying forces in the life of the world. It is no small satisfaction to see, therefore, how quickly and with what cordiality the leading universities of the world have come forward to bear their full share in the movement to establish peace and to promote good will between the nations, and how willing they are to draw upon each other's strength in so doing. The main fortress of prejudice and international antagonism is ignorance. Knowledge is the one weapon by which this fortress can be reduced and rendered harmless.

The scholars of the world have played a large part in international life since the time of Leibnitz, but recent years have seen this aspect of scholarly activity and influence increased greatly in extent and in power. The informal and unorganized interchange of students between the universities of the world preceded the formal and organized interchange of professors. The universities of the Old World, particularly those of Germany, England and France, have attracted ambitious American youth in increasing numbers for just about one hundred years. The young Americans who, receiving new stimulus and inspiration at these ancient and well-established centers of the world's learning, returned to promote scholarship and science in America, were genuine pioneers in the movement of internationalism which is today in evidence everywhere.†

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

While there has been an apparent, and perhaps in some respects a real, improvement in economic conditions throughout the country, the overshadowing lack of confidence which has been so marked a feature of the past five years continues in large

* Report for 1906-7, pp. 10-11.

† Report for 1910-11, pp. 14-15.

degree. The effect of this lack of confidence is to continue, and indeed to multiply, the difficult problems of administration which face the University, as well as to leave unlightened the burdens borne by both teachers and students.

The spirit of the University continues to be most admirable. No service is too great or no sacrifice too severe to be given or made by members of the teaching and administrative staff where the interests of the University are at stake. It is greatly to be hoped that in the near future the governments of the world may enter upon those policies of international understanding and international coöperation which alone can restore economic prosperity and relieve the load which the intellectual workers of the world are now carrying. When international peace is constantly threatened and when international prosperity is postponed by lack of national understanding, the lot of those institutions of public service which have their home in the field of liberty rather than in that of government, must continue to be difficult indeed.*

THE STUDY OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

Both by the Department of International Law and by the School of Journalism, a sound beginning has been made in interesting students in international relations and affairs and in giving instruction concerning them. The great war which is devastating and impoverishing Europe has taught millions of men who have never before given thought to the subject how interdependent the various nations of the earth really are. These international relations are only in part diplomatic, political and legal; they are in far larger part economic, social, ethical and intellectual. In seeking out the facts which illustrate these interrelations and interdependences and in interpreting them, there is a new and hitherto little used field of instruction which is just now of peculiar interest and value to the American. If the world is to pro-

* Report for 1934-35, p. 5.

gress in harmony, in coöperation, and in peace, the leaders of opinion throughout the world must possess the international mind. They must not see an enemy in every neighbor, but rather a friend and a helper in a common cause. To bring this about implies a long and probably slow process of moral education. However long and however slow the process may prove to be, a beginning must be made, and Columbia has recently made this beginning definitely and earnestly and its efforts have met with a cordial response. The international aspect of every great question which arises should be fairly and fully presented, and, without dealing too much with the speculative aspects of a future internationalism, stress should constantly be laid upon the world's progress in interdependence. The instruction already offered on these important topics may well be strengthened as opportunity offers and as its good effects are manifest.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

For many years past the international relations and influence of Columbia University have been of steadily increasing significance and importance. Not only have the reputation and distinction of the University's teachers and scholars drawn many students from foreign countries and led their own published writings to be translated into many languages, but the University itself has diligently sought to establish intimate relations with the academic and intellectual life of other peoples in Europe, in Central and South America, and in the Orient. This steadily pursued policy has been based upon the belief that scholarship and science are essentially above international boundaries and limitations, and that as the universities become increasingly interdependent and familiar with each other's organization and work, so the peoples which they serve and represent will grow in interdependence and in mutual understanding. While the war has broken the relations that existed between Columbia University and the intellectual life of Germany and Austria-Hungary, it has

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 29-30.

greatly strengthened those relations with the universities of Great Britain, of France, and of Italy, and has pointed the way to more intimate intellectual commerce with the peoples of Central and South America and of Japan and China.

Unless all signs fail, among the most important University subjects of study in the immediate future are to be international relations, including international law, and public law, both constitutional and administrative, particularly in its comparative aspects. The new international movement, so far as it is healthy and sound, is founded upon a common respect for law and justice, a common interest in the steady improvement of the lot of human beings and the promotion of their satisfaction and happiness, and upon an earnest purpose to unite the forces of reason and righteousness for the removal of causes of international war and for the suppression of international war itself. That the universities are to play a powerful part in carrying forward these movements can hardly be doubted. In many lands the universities have already shown themselves to be the active centers of interest in international life and international relations. The danger to be guarded against is lest a shallow and superficial sentimentalism shall usurp the place which belongs to reasonableness and to straight thinking. The world will not be made either wise or happy in a day, nor will its wisdom and happiness be assured by judicial decree, legislative enactment or international agreement, however judicious and well supported these may seem to be. The world's wisdom and happiness are a growth, and often a very slow growth; but the experiences of a war that has involved the whole world have proved a persuasive and influential teacher of public opinion. It may now well be that within the next generation greater progress in advancing international coöperation and international understanding will be made than has been recorded in all the centuries of preceding history.

For participation in this work trained men and women will be needed in no inconsiderable number. The study of international law, of international relations, and of comparative constitutional

and administrative law, under guidance that has vision as well as scholarship, imagination as well as learning, sympathy as well as knowledge, is therefore to be promoted in all possible ways. An increasing number of students should be drawn into these fields, and still larger opportunities for study and to gain experience in affairs should be offered them by the University.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

Unless one aims to become a philologist or perchance intends to pass his life as a courier or as a servant in a bureau of foreign travel, there is no reason why a foreign language should be studied by anyone, if knowledge of this language and facility in its use are not to be made the open door through which the student will quickly pass to some comprehension of the history, the literature, the philosophy and the social, political and economic systems of those people whose language it is. Far too much language study begins and ends with the technicalities of grammar and rhetoric and far too little of it leads as a matter of course to facility in its spoken and written use. It is pathetic to find an American student who has spent two or three years upon the study of French or German or Italian or Spanish, quite unable to make any effective use of the fruits of his study when visiting either France or Germany or Italy or Spain.

Despite the testimony of anthropology and of history, the doctrine is now vigorously preached in at least one modern land that distinction of race is fundamental and controlling. If this were so, a new element, both of importance and of difficulty, would be added to modern language study. The truth, however, is as stated bluntly by the Warden of New College in his masterly history of Europe: "Purity of race does not exist. Europe is a continent of energetic mongrels." † The various racial groups which have made their appearance in western Europe during the past 2,500 years have long since become so completely inter-

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 7-9.

† H. A. L. Fisher, *History of Europe* (London: Eyre and Spottiswoode, 1935), I, 12.

mingled and confused, each with another, that the term "race" itself has for the student of our Western civilization very little meaning. Yet each modern language has been, and still is, the agency for the preservation and development of a certain form of reflection upon life, of interpretation of life, and for the expression, in poetry and in prose, of varied aspects of human aspiration, of human experience and of human contemplation. In our present-day interdependent world, where every barrier save those of national prejudice and economic selfishness has been broken down, it is through and by the knowledge and use of more languages than one that the citizen of this twentieth-century world may come to a better understanding of himself and his problems, as well as of the colossal and varied happenings which the electric spark and the printing press lay before him day by day and almost hour by hour. The greatest need of any people, for the sake of its own prosperity, its own happiness and its own influence, is to become internationally minded. "The international mind is nothing other than that habit of thinking of foreign relations and business, and that habit of dealing with them, which regard the several nations of the civilized world as friendly and coöperating equals in aiding the progress of civilization, in developing commerce and industry, and in spreading enlightenment and culture throughout the world." *

So defined, the international mind carries with it no weakening of national honor and national interest, but rather the contrary. It implies an understanding of the principles and facts which underlie the present-day world, and a progressiveness of spirit which will not refuse to look changed and changing facts in the face. Its philosophic foundation is to be found in the writings of Plato and of Aristotle. Its story is told in Laurent's superb *Etudes sur l'histoire de l'humanité*, in von Ranke's *Weltgeschichte*, in Gibbon's classic *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, and just now in Fisher's invaluable *History of Europe*. To read and to reflect upon these literary monuments is to find

* Nicholas Murray Butler, *The International Mind* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1912), p. 102.

new invitation to gain mastery over at least one or two languages other than the native tongue.

The more important a twentieth-century man believes his own nation to be, the more necessary is it that he should learn something at first hand of the life and thought of those other nations which are not merely his neighbors, but his associates and companions in carrying forward the work of a world which grows more completely interdependent year by year and almost day by day. It will not do to assert that when we turn our backs upon our fellow men we are attending to our own business. "Am I my brother's keeper?" was the question asked by Cain long, long ago, and when he was punished for his utterance, his answer was, "My punishment is greater than I can bear." Precisely that which happened so long, long ago in the story of Cain will happen to any twentieth-century nation which continues insolently to repeat Cain's question.*

TRAINING OF ADULT ALIENS

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

Closely allied to the study of international relations is the study of ways and means how best to train adult aliens to become well informed and appreciative citizens of the United States. This is what is widely known as the problem of Americanization. For those immigrants who come from foreign lands in early childhood, the public schools are the natural and necessary instruments in preparing them for full and sympathetic participation in the rights and duties of American citizens. For those who come from foreign lands after the age of adolescence is past, different agencies and instrumentalities must be provided. Columbia University has been at work upon this problem for some time past, especially through Extension Teaching, and has recently taken steps better to organize its work in this regard and more effectively to prosecute it.

The building given to the University in 1910 by Mr. Edward

* Report for 1934-35, pp. 24-26.

D. Adams, called the Deutsches Haus, to serve as a center for the work of the University in the study of German history and civilization, has, with the full approval and consent of Mr. Adams, been turned into a center for work in connection with the Americanization of adult aliens, and given the name Columbia House. A group of University teachers and alumni who have particular interest in the problems of Americanization are at work upon the formulation of plans to accomplish the end in view without duplicating the work of other institutions and agencies, but rather in coöperation with such. Professor W. A. Braun has been placed in direction of the undertaking. It is confidently anticipated that before the close of the present academic year, a thoroughly practicable scheme of work will be agreed upon and the necessary financial support for it obtained.

The task of Americanization involves something more than mere instruction. It involves getting the viewpoint of the adult alien who has taken the risk of seeking a new home in a strange land across a broad ocean, and of trying to understand the personal, economic, social, and political motives that have led him to this important step. When we understand *why* a given group of adult aliens has come to the United States, we shall be well on the road toward understanding how best to assist them to become American citizens in the fullest meaning of those words. It will then perhaps be found that questions of public health, of housing, of adequate wages, and of steady employment under proper conditions of health and safety are even more important factors in the making of a good citizen than textbook instruction in American history and American government.*

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 9-10.

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PART TWO

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN LIFE AND
EDUCATIONAL POLICY

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VII

MODERN INFLUENCES

THE NEW BARBARISM

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

IT would be idle to ignore the fact that there is widespread public dissatisfaction with the results of present-day education. Horace Greeley's famous classification of college graduates with horned cattle is too often quoted with approving sarcasm. The mounting cost of education, both tax-supported and other, and its diverse competing forms, are increasingly attracting unfavorable public attention and increasingly arousing sharp public criticism. The qualifications of those who teach are not always spoken of with approbation. In the past it has been usual to assume that whatever is done in the name of education, like that which is done in the name of philanthropy or religion, is of necessity well and deservedly done and is to be supported without murmur. There are, however, too many signs that education does not satisfactorily educate to justify or even to ensure a longer continuance of this uncritical acquiescence. What is the trouble?

Perhaps a hint of where to look for an answer may be found in the remark of an undergraduate who had been in attendance upon a lecture by one of the foremost living authorities in his field. "A very scholarly lecture," the undergraduate was heard to say as the audience passed out, but his tone was one of distinct protest that he had spent his time in listening to scholarship. Scholarship, it must be confessed, is not popular in America, and what is blithely referred to as the revolt against intellectualism is, in last analysis, nothing more or less than the revolt against the influence of those who know. It is the passionate cry of ignorance for power. A casual impression gained from the reading of some hopelessly befogged magazine or from some haphazard news-

paper headline, or a response to some emotional "urge" — the newest name for appetite — is greatly preferred to real knowledge. The ruling passion just now is not to know and to understand, but to get ahead, to overturn something, to apply in ways that bring material advantage some bit of information or some acquired skill. Both school and college have in large part taken their minds off the true business of education, which is to prepare youth to live, and have fixed them upon something which is very subordinate, namely, how to prepare youth to make a living. This is all part and parcel of the prevailing tendency to measure everything in terms of self-interest. Economic explanations of the conduct of individuals, of groups and of nations — that is, explanations based upon desire for gain or love of power — are sought rather than explanations based upon intellectual or ethical foundations. But a civilization based upon self-interest rather than upon intellectual and moral principle would swiftly lapse into the barbarism out of which it has come. An educational system based upon self-interest is not worthy the support and the sacrifice of a civilized people.

We are doubtless passing through a period of reaction in education which will spend itself as periods of reaction have so often spent themselves before. The sure mark of a real reactionary is his contempt for all that man has learned and done, and his demand that the history of human achievement be thrown away and the task begun all over again on the basis of present-day dissatisfaction and distress. The sure mark of the true progressive is his acceptance of human experience, his desire to understand and to interpret it, and his determination that it shall be made the foundation for something better, something happier and something more just than anything which has gone before. . . .

This decline in educational power is primarily the result of a widely influential and wholly false philosophy of education which has operated to destroy the excellence of the American school and college, as these existed a generation ago, without putting anything in its place. It has been dinned into our ears

that all subjects are of equal educational value, and that it matters not what one studies, but only how he studies it. This doctrine has destroyed the standard of value in education, and in practical application is making us a widely instructed but an uncultivated and undisciplined people. We are now solemnly adjured that children, however young, must not be guided or disciplined by their elders, but that they must be permitted to give full and free expression to their own individuality, which can of course only mean their own utter emptiness. In education as in physics, nature abhors a vacuum. Were such a theory as that to become dominant for any length of time, the whole world would thereby be sentenced to remain forever in the incompetence and immaturity of childhood. No generation would be helped or permitted to stand on the shoulders of its predecessors, or to add something to what they had already gained. Life would then be merely an everlasting beginning, devoid of accomplishment and without other aim than the multiplication of nervous reactions to a variety of accidental and rapidly succeeding stimuli. The much despised *τὸ τέλος* is essential to any movement that is progress; anything else is mere intellectual, social and political wriggling.

With the decline of genuine educational guidance and helpful discipline there has gone an increasingly vigorous warfare on excellence and distinction of every kind, which is truly pathetic in its destructiveness. Youth are told that they must exert themselves and excel, but if they chance to take this advice and succeed they are then pointed to as the evil products of a harmful and ill-organized social system. So long ago as October 31, 1888, Professor Goldwin Smith, an inveterate liberal and a keen observer of his kind, wrote to Mrs. Humphry Ward: "Over the intellectual dead-level of this democracy opinion courses like the tide running in over a flat." Under such conditions the mob spirit becomes increasingly powerful. The demagogue, the persistent and plausible self-seeker, and those who possess or can command the large sums of money needed to advertise themselves throughout the land, occupy the largest place in the public eye

and actually come to think of themselves and be thought of as representative Americans. It is not surprising that at least three-fourths of the best ability and best character in the United States remains in hiding, so far as public knowledge and public service are concerned.

It is significant, too, that in this period of vigorous and able-bodied reaction the world should be without a poet, without a philosopher, and without a notable religious leader. The great voices of the spirit are all stilled just now, while the mad passion for gain and for power endeavors to gratify itself through the odd device of destroying what has already been gained or accomplished.

To get back upon the path of constructive progress will be a long and difficult task. A first step will be to bring back the elementary school to its own proper business. The elementary school being universal, well organized and easily accessible, has been seized upon by faddists and enthusiasts of every type as an instrumentality not for better education, but for accomplishing their own particular ends. The simple business of training young children in good habits of diet and exercise and conduct; of teaching them the elementary facts of the nature which surrounds them and of the society of which they form a part; and of giving them ability to read understandingly, to write legibly and to perform quickly and with accuracy the fundamental operations with numbers, has been pushed into the background by all sorts of enterprises that have their origin in emotionalism, in ignorance, or in mere vanity. Through lack of knowledge of educational values, and their fear of an uninformed public opinion, the secondary schools and the colleges have very largely abdicated their place as leaders in modern life and have become the plaything of whatever temporary and passing influences may operate upon them. In the hope of becoming popular they have thrown overboard principle. Throughout elementary school, high school and college, teachers are too often not teachers at all, but preachers or propagandists for some doctrine of their

own liking. One would think that the business of teaching was sufficiently simple and sufficiently important to be kept unconfused with other forms of influence; but such has not been the case. Very many teachers are preachers or propagandists first and teachers afterwards.

It is in conditions like these that one must look for an explanation of the costly ineffectiveness which is so sharply charged against present-day education in the United States. We are told that boys and girls, young men and young women, spend years apparently in study and then leave school or college without a trained intelligence, without any standards of appreciation in art or in morals, with wretched manners, with slovenly speech, and without capacity to approach a new problem dispassionately or to reason about it clearly. It is asserted that we devote untold skill and labor to the teaching of French, of Spanish and of German, and yet the high school or college graduate who can speak or write any one of these languages correctly and freely, or read them save with difficulty, is rare indeed; that for fifty years we have poured out money without stint for the teaching of the natural and experimental sciences, and have provided costly laboratories and collections to make that teaching practical, yet the result, so far as giving a general command of scientific method or general knowledge of scientific facts is concerned, is quite negligible; that school and college students spend years upon the study of history and yet few really know any history; that these students are uniformly taught to read and are guided toward reading that which is worth while, yet it is clear that the greater part of their reading is of that which is unworthy to be read. More criticism than was ever leveled against the study of Latin, Greek and mathematics based upon the meager practical results obtained, can be repeated with equal force against those newer subjects of school and college study which have so largely displaced Latin, Greek and mathematics.*

* Report for 1919-20, pp. 16-21.

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

Every conceivable explanation of unrest, dissatisfaction and disorder that prevail throughout the world has been proposed except the one which is probably the deepest and most important. For between two hundred and three hundred years the modern world has been in a state of intellectual upheaval, although there are those who think that this condition began with the World War or was caused by it. This upheaval has grown constantly more widespread and more severe. The forces that lie behind it have profoundly affected the religious life and the religious faith of great masses of men, have shaken their confidence in age-old principles of private morals and of public policy, and have left them blindly groping for guiding principles to take the place of those that have lost their hold. A generation ago John Fiske, in one of his luminous essays, pointed out that a necessary effect of the Copernican theory of the universe was to make the earth and its inhabitants seem so small and insignificant as to be quite unimportant in the scheme of things and to transfer the center of gravity of man's interest to suns and worlds far more vast and far more important than ours. While the Copernican theory may logically seem to have required this result, what has happened is quite different. Man's attention and interest have been increasingly turned to himself, his immediate surroundings, and his instant occupation. Having come to feel himself quite superior to all that has gone before, and being without faith in anything that lies beyond, he has tended to become an extreme egotist. The natural result has been to measure the universe in terms of himself and his present satisfactions. His own emotions and his own appetites, being present and immediate, take precedence in the shaping of conduct and of policy over any body of principles built up by the experience of others. The wisdom, the justice, the morality of an act or policy are then tested solely by its immediate results, and these results are

increasingly measured in terms of the material and emotional satisfactions of the moment.

In a world so constituted and so motivated unrest, dissatisfaction and disorder are a necessity. Set free a million or a thousand million wills to work each for the accomplishment of its own immediate material satisfactions, and nothing but unrest, dissatisfaction and disorder is possible.

What appears to have happened is that in setting free the individual human being from those external restraints and compulsions which constitute tyranny, he has also been set free from those internal restraints and compulsions which distinguish liberty from license. The pendulum has swung too far. The time has come, the time is indeed already past, when the pendulum should begin its swing backward toward the middle point of wisdom, of sanity, of self-control and of steady progress.

There is no man, there is no people, without a God. That God may be a visible idol, carved of wood or stone, to which sacrifice is offered in the forest, in the temple, or in the market-place; or it may be an invisible idol, fashioned in a man's own image and worshipped ardently at his own personal shrine. Somewhere in the universe there is that in which each individual has firm faith, and on which he places steady reliance. The fool who says in his heart "There is no God" really means there is no God but himself. His supreme egotism, his colossal vanity, have placed him at the center of the universe which is thereafter to be measured and dealt with in terms of his personal satisfactions. So it has come to pass that after nearly two thousand years much of the world resembles the Athens of St. Paul's time, in that it is wholly given to idolatry; but in the modern case there are as many idols as idol worshippers, and every such idol worshipper finds his idol in the looking-glass. The time has come once again to repeat and to expound in thunderous tones the noble sermon of St. Paul on Mars Hill, and to declare to these modern idolaters

“Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, Him declare I unto you.”

There can be no cure for the world's ills and no abatement of the world's discontents until faith and the rule of everlasting principle are again restored and made supreme in the life of men and of nations. These millions of man-made gods, these myriads of personal idols, must be broken up and destroyed, and the heart and mind of man brought back to a comprehension of the real meaning of faith and its place in life. This cannot be done by exhortation or by preaching alone. It must be done also by teaching; careful, systematic, rational teaching, that will show in a simple language which the uninstructed can understand what are the essentials of a permanent and lofty morality, of a stable and just social order, and of a secure and sublime religious faith.

Here we come upon the whole great problem of national education, its successes and its disappointments, its achievements and its problems yet unsolved. Education is not merely instruction — far from it. It is the leading of the youth out into a comprehension of his environment, that, comprehending, he may so act and so conduct himself as to leave the world better and happier for his having lived in it. This environment is not by any means a material thing alone. It is material of course, but, in addition, it is intellectual, it is spiritual. The youth who is led to an understanding of nature and of economics and left blind and deaf to the appeals of literature, of art, of morals and of religion, has been shown but a part of that great environment which is his inheritance as a human being. The school and the college do much, but the school and the college cannot do all. Since Protestantism broke up the solidarity of the ecclesiastical organization in the Western world, and since democracy made intermingling of state and church impossible, it has been necessary, if religion is to be saved for men, that the family and the church do their vital coöperative part in a national organization of educational effort. The school, the family and the church are three coöper-

ating educational agencies, each of which has its weight of responsibility to bear. If the family be weakened in respect of its moral and spiritual basis, or if the church be neglectful of its obligation to offer systematic, continuous and convincing religious instruction to the young who are within its sphere of influence, there can be no hope for a Christian education or for the powerful perpetuation of the Christian faith in the minds and lives of the next generation and those immediately to follow. We are trustees of a great inheritance. If we abuse or neglect that trust we are responsible before Almighty God for the infinite damage that will be done in the life of individuals and of nations.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

It is well-established American doctrine that private initiative must be protected from monopoly, whether government-made or artificially created by combination or control of natural resources. This principle applies quite as much in the field of education as in any other part of our national life. The notion that all youth must be cast in a common mold, cared for in a common institution, and trained under one and the same set of influences, might be acceptable in the *Republic* of Plato or in the political science of Prussia, but it is not acceptable in the United States. Education is primarily and fundamentally a parental and family privilege and duty. The parents of a child are responsible before God and man for its upbringing and its preparation for an honorable and useful life. It is an essential part of American civil liberty that parents may train their children in such wise and in such form of religious faith as they may prefer and choose. In our American theory the government steps in, not to monopolize education or to attempt to cast all children in a common mold or forcibly to deprive them of any religious training and instruction, but merely to prevent damage to the state itself. The government offers a free opportunity to every child to receive

* Report for 1919-20, pp. 23-27.

elementary education, and usually much more than that, in tax-supported schools. It is, however, in no sense the business of the government in our American political philosophy to attempt to monopolize education or to prevent the freest choice by parents of the teachers and schools for their children. As one looks back on the history of American education during the past three generations, it becomes a matter for regret that the government had recourse to compulsion rather than to inducement in the attempt to protect the state against the evils of illiteracy and indiscipline. If the government had early taken the ground that since ample opportunity for instruction and training was provided for all by public tax, it would not permit any one to exercise the right of suffrage or to share the full privileges of citizenship who could not show evidence that he had either taken advantage of the opportunity which the government provided or had gained equivalent instruction and discipline elsewhere, the embarrassments, the friction, and the bad example of compulsory education laws might have been avoided, and the tax-supported schools still more eagerly resorted to by reason of the advantages to be gained, rather than because of the punishment which failure to attend them might involve. It is perhaps too late now to substitute a sounder system for the less sound one that has been built up. But the American people should learn their lesson and avoid repeating in any other field of endeavor the substitution of the instrument of force and compulsion for that of reasonableness and persuasive inducement.

Much of the unclear thinking relative to education, and not a few of the unhappy and dangerous proposals concerning it that are made from time to time, are the result of failing to recognize that the school is but one of three coöperative agencies in a well-rounded education, and that it cannot bear the whole burden of education and should not be asked to do so. Education is a coöperative undertaking in which family, school and church have each an appropriate part to bear. Any doctrine or any public act which makes coöperation between these three agencies

impossible or even difficult is a backward step, an un-American step, and a step fraught with disaster to sound education.

That the family has been withdrawing from effective participation in the educational process even where it was qualified to play a significant part, is commonplace. That the church has, save in scattered instances, failed to rise to the height of its opportunity, is also commonplace. If family and church did their full duty or anything approaching it, many of the severe criticisms now brought against schools and colleges would disappear. The school and the college cannot bear their own proper burden and at the same time make up for the delinquencies of the family and the deficiencies of the church. The school and the college can coöperate with the family and the church, but they cannot provide substitutes for these.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1926

There was a time when the Bible was a household book throughout the English-speaking world. Then the spot called Philistia could be indicated on the map by almost any child, and the doings of these doughty warriors, the Philistines, were by no means unfamiliar. The original Philistia covered an area some forty miles long, by from ten to twenty miles broad. On this quite insignificant bit of ground deeds were done and chronicled that have passed through the gateway of literature into history.

Today there is a New Philistia, occupying a space indefinitely greater than the land for which it is named and peopled by an active, restless and highly nervous company of men and women who have turned it into what the Prophet Jeremiah described as "the land of graven images, and they are mad upon their idols." These new and numerous Philistines are concerned with displacing discipline for indiscipline, scholarship for deftly organized opportunities for ignorance, thoroughness for superficiality, and morals for impulsive and appetitive conduct. They are the proud discoverers and possessors of a doctrine of behavior which finds

* Report for 1921-22, pp. 41-43.

nothing to behave and no purpose in behaving. Where they have touched education — and they have touched and are touching it at many points — they are reducing it to a costly pantomime. They are the blind leading the blind, as well as no inconsequential part of the cause of those intellectual, moral, social and political ills which afflict modern man and which greatly multiply the difficulties of carrying forward a constructive and a progressive civilization. It is they and their influence who provide abundant illustrative material for the teachings of the Dean Inges and the Dr. Spenglers among contemporaries.*

LIBERALISM AND DEMOCRACY

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

In common with many other types of public service institution, the universities have come into close relations with the national government as an incident to the organization of the nation for war. In some cases this relationship has brought about changes that can only be described as revolutionary, but it is not at all certain that many of them are not beneficial and worthy of continuance in some form. For instance, the war has brought back to the American people, and in some degree to the schools and colleges, the spirit of discipline which had been almost lost. The sentimental imitations of philosophy which have been spread out before teachers for a generation past have decried discipline as something unnatural, abhorrent, and to be avoided. With an innocence which is hardly pardonable so long after Rousseau lived and wrote, the natural longings and instincts of the infant have been exalted as the sole guide for his development of mind and character. The world of human experience was to be put aside and a world of the ego substituted for it. In the easy-going days of peace, when the nation was called upon for no particular effort, the evil effects of this lackadaisical theory were not generally understood, and indeed might not have been fully apparent

* Report for 1925-26, pp. 24-25.

or years to come. The moment that the nation was called upon to make an effort, however, to adjust itself to a new and grave responsibility, and to summon all its powers in order to give adequate support to its ideals, then it appeared that discipline must be sought out in its hiding places and quickly installed in a place of honor. The good effect was instantaneous, and those who were disciplined themselves realize the benefit of their new experience and are loath to surrender it.

In the next place, the methods of college and university life and teaching had often been casual and easy-going in the extreme. Lectures on French literature might be offered on alternate Monday afternoons and lectures on politics on Wednesday mornings. Teacher and taught alike were often without concentration, intensive effort, or sustained interest in the field of study. In many instances, these conditions have been ruthlessly swept away, and it is to be hoped that they will never return or be restored. A subject that is worth the attention of an ambitious youth and the effort of an accomplished teacher surely deserves to be pursued with a continuity, an intensiveness, and a persistence which alone can lead to anything approaching either mastery or the development of a real interest. At the Summer Session of Columbia University, it has been customary from its establishment to carry on instruction in this intensive fashion. The results have been wholly admirable. When to the long experience of the Summer Session is now added the experience of instruction reorganized in response to national needs, it would seem to be nothing short of a calamity ever to permit a return to the old and unhappy conditions of diffusion and discursiveness.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

Few things are more noticeable in much current writing and discussion than the twisting of well-known terms from their accustomed meanings. This twisting is quite often done consciously and for purposes of propaganda. Perhaps no word in the Eng-

* Report for 1917-18 pp. 6-7.

lish language has suffered more from this ill-treatment than the fine word liberal. The historic and familiar significance of this term is that which is worthy of a free man, of one who is open-minded and candid, of one who is open to the reception of new ideas. In this sense the thought which lies behind the word liberal has dominated every really progressive theory of education from the time of Plato to the present day. Just now, however, the word liberal is widely used as though it were synonymous with queer, odd, unconventional, otherwise-minded, in perpetual opposition. There was a time when in the neighborhood of Boston the test of liberalism was the rejection of the Andover Creed, and possibly the rejection of the Apostles' Creed itself. Many would include among liberals those who favor all sorts of social, industrial and governmental tyranny, which are by their very nature incompatible with liberty. An enemy of the family and an experimenter with what is called trial marriage, is now called a liberal. The person who would destroy government and substitute for the political state of free men a close-working combination of industrial autocracies, is called a liberal. One who sneers at the religious faith or the political convictions of others, and takes care that his attitude is publicly advertised, is called a liberal. Under such circumstances it is plainly necessary to look to one's definitions. The aim of the school, the college and the university has often been described as that of making liberal-minded men and women; but surely this need not be interpreted to include freaks, oddities, revolutionaries and those whose conduct carries them close to the border line which, if crossed, would require them to be put in confinement in the interest of social welfare and social safety.

The truly liberal man or woman will be self-disciplined, and will aim to make knowledge the foundation of wisdom, to base conduct upon fixed character, and to maintain an even temper at difficult times. Considering the conditions of the time in which they lived, the ancient Stoics give us some admirable examples of what is truly meant by a liberal. We cannot afford to let this

word be lost or to have it stolen before our eyes. Its application should be denied to those individuals and those traits for which it is wrongly claimed, and its true definition and use should be insisted upon everywhere and at all times. Otherwise, we shall have to find some other definition of the aim of education than that of making liberal men and women.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1929

In an address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Vassar College a number of years ago,† the educated man was described as possessing five characteristics, no matter what might be the form and the content of the knowledge that he had acquired: correctness and precision in the use of the mother tongue; refined and gentle manners, which are the expression of fixed habits of thought and action; the power and habit of reflection; the power of growth; and efficiency, or the power to do. There is no reason to alter the statement then made, but there is abundant reason to lay a new and insistent emphasis upon one of these five characteristics, namely, refined and gentle manners, which are the expression of fixed habits of thought and action.

There is an odd but widespread opinion, found not only in the United States but in other lands as well, that distinction of person or manner or dress is somehow out of place in a democratic society. There is no objection to wearing knickerbockers for golf, but there is deep-rooted objection to wearing knee-breeches at a formal state function where gentlemen have appeared in this costume for generations. Those who are of this mind believe, or assume to believe, that democracy either approves or smiles upon dirt, vulgarity of speech and of manner, slovenliness of dress, and avoidance of anything which might appear to be refined, gentle or elegant. If this fact be doubted, observation of a crowd in motion under almost any circumstances will furnish convincing evidence.

* Report for 1919-20, pp. 14-15.

† Nicholas Murray Butler, "Five Evidences of an Education," *The Meaning of Education* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915), pp. 99-116.

The fact of the matter is that democracy, for its fullest flower, requires distinction of manner, of speech and of dress more than does any other form of society. In that popular form of impossibility which is described as the leveling process, there is an alternative mode of procedure — men may attempt to level themselves up or they may attempt to level themselves down. If they choose to attempt to level themselves down, democracy will sooner or later disappear into ochlocracy, and this is always the forerunner of a new despotism. The more serious and seductive of the two powerful attacks which are just now being made upon the foundations of democracy finds its strength in the conviction that democracy as it has presented itself in the Western world cannot escape ochlocracy, which is merely mob rule.

The cruel subterfuge of false democracy has misled millions upon millions and has closed their eyes to the fact that a democratic system which cannot produce an aristocracy of its own for its ornament and its service is certainly doomed. After all the changes and happenings of a century, during which time the democratic system has exhibited its power in many different forms and in every part of the world, there has been no wiser or sounder description of its meaning than was given by Mazzini when he said of democracy that it is "the progress of all through all under the leadership of the best and wisest." Democracy's aristocracy is not one of birth, of inherited privilege, or of wealth, but it is one of character, of high intelligence, of large knowledge, of zeal for service, recruited from the bosom of democracy itself. Under the operation of the law of liberty, true democracy will open the way to the upbuilding of an aristocracy that is all its own as well as its chiefest ornament.

There is no such person as the average man. That phrase is a figure of speech which deludes both him who uses it and him to whom it is addressed. It reflects that statistical method which informs without enlightening, because it puts in the background those extremes, particularly in human relationships, concerning which it is most important of all to have knowledge and to take

account. Every real man is some particular man. To say that there are many like him ought to excite not admiration but suspicion. Those ingenious and untiring persons who play upon popular ignorance and popular passion in order to gain for themselves popular favor are not in the least removed from that sovereign people whom Juvenal saw praying for but two things, *Panem et Circenses*. So long as the stomach is provided for and amusement is ample and cheap, what need matter the things of the mind, the delights of scholarship, and the unequaled pleasure of moving in the upper ether of the spiritual experience of the race? It is little wonder that fascism finds earnest and highly intelligent expounders when the antics of false democracy are to be seen on almost every hand.

The cure for false democracy is true democracy. It is not, and cannot be, the return to despotism under any form, however attractive that may appear to be. Privileged individuals and privileged classes sooner or later become preying individuals and preying classes. In true democracy the path must lie open from the bottom to the top, and the absurd notion that all men can be made alike and all put on one and the same level of competence, authority and possession, be abandoned as the hopeless folly which it is. Human equality means equality of consideration, equality of treatment, equality of opportunity; it has never meant, and by no thoughtful man has it ever been supposed to mean, sameness of any kind. Indeed, to treat all human individuals the same is to treat them unequally. Equality of treatment means, not the same treatment for all but a like manner of treatment for all. The parable of the laborers in the vineyard throws light on this distinction.

Still another hallucination of false democracy is that a majority has rights and that by the voice of a majority matters of principle are finally determined. This is utter nonsense. No majority has any rights whatever. The individual has rights and a majority has privileges. It has the privilege of determining who shall be chosen to serve it in public place, and it has the privilege

of determining what policy or course of conduct shall next be entered upon, but it has and can have absolutely nothing to do with the determination of true or false, right or wrong, moral or immoral, beautiful or ugly. A majority in Central Africa might vote that the hut of a savage was more beautiful than the Parthenon or St. Peter's or Westminster Abbey, but this would not alter the fact that the hut of the savage would remain squalid and ugly. Standards of excellence, and excellence itself, are always set and revealed by the individual; it is inconceivable that either should be set or revealed by a majority vote of those who know nothing of what it is all about.*

NEWS VERSUS KNOWLEDGE

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

The removal by the telephone, the telegraph and the radio of those barriers of time and space which have always widely separated mankind, together with the ability and zeal with which the art of journalism has been carried forward during the past generation, has resulted in the development of new problems of a public character which are not easy of solution and which have important practical bearings. The news of the immediate day, whatever its character or from whatever point it may come, now takes an overwhelming precedence in the conscious attention of the vast majority of those who are able to read and who do read. Their intellectual life, if it may be dignified by that name, consists almost wholly in leaping from headline to headline. It is from an appalling crime in the morning to a tragic accident in the afternoon or to the record of the unthinking appropriation of hundreds of millions of non-existent public funds in the evening, that their conscious attention jumps. So rapid and of such immediate interest are news items of this kind, which it is the bounden duty of the daily journals to present, that the readers of those journals find little time, opportunity or invitation to

* Report for 1928-29, pp. 35-38.

think. They have become journalistically minded, and news constitutes pretty much the entire body of their knowledge.

The late Lord Balfour used to say that he did not read the newspapers because he wished to be well informed and that if anything of importance took place, someone who knew would tell him about it. Certainly in his busy life he found plenty of time to think and he thought to high and fine purpose.

As yet twentieth-century man has not adjusted himself to a life in which news which is perhaps of merely momentary interest and passing importance, plays so dominant a daily part. He finds himself compelled to try to keep abreast of the news in order to carry on conversation with his fellow men and to deal with the tasks of daily life. His problem is, while doing this, to find time to think, to reflect, to understand and to fit the passing news into its proper framework of understanding and interpretation.

The more news which the daily journals bring to the attention of the public, the more important it is for that public to understand the meaning of the news, the lessons which it teaches and the conduct and policies to which it points. Man cannot live by newspapers alone. He must learn to make news take its place in the raw material of ordered and reflective knowledge. Unless he does so, news itself will have for him merely an emotional value and his intellect will atrophy.*

EDUCATION FOR LEISURE

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

There are signs, constantly increasing in number, that the public is beginning to appreciate both the novelty and the magnitude of the problems which face organized society in this twentieth century. Over a period of some two hundred or three hundred years greatest emphasis has been laid upon productive industry, whether on the land, at the home, or in the factory.

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 66-67.

Following productive industry and measured by its success, has come the problem of transportation. First roads, then canals and rivers, then railways, and now air transport have been developed, multiplied and improved in order to bring the products of human industry quickly and cheaply to their several points of final distribution for consumption. So rapid has been the development of productive industry, so powerful, so time-saving and so labor-saving are its newest devices and machines, that the hours of human labor have everywhere been greatly shortened without depriving mankind of any of the means with which to meet his needs. There has been lifted from many millions of workers with hand and with brain the intolerable burden of unending occupation through pretty much all the waking hours, while at the same time a new and unfamiliar measure of leisure has been added to their lives.

One result of these far-reaching changes, which while everywhere visible may perhaps be but temporary, has been to give strength to the false economic notion that there is not work enough to go around, and that the more time a worker spends upon a given job the better for himself and his mates. This practice, which is more strongly rooted in English-speaking countries than anywhere else in the world, operates directly to raise the cost of production, to increase the cost of living and to reduce the value of the money wages paid to the worker. Until the fallacy of this dawdling and slacking method of work can be brought home to the worker, a large part of the good effects which might follow from the greatly increased wages and the greatly shortened hours of labor, will be lost both to the workers themselves and to society as a whole.

With these changes there comes a new and difficult but very pressing educational and social problem. This problem is that of finding ways and means for the useful and agreeable occupation of leisure. This signifies that men must be taught new wants and given new tastes, such as can only be met and gratified by the judicious and fortunate use of those hours that need no longer

be spent upon productive industry. Outdoor sports, enjoyment of nature, a love of the fine arts and a growing appreciation of their ideals and chief accomplishments; a love of reading, not merely that of any mechanically printed page, but of something which should be read for its form and style and nobility of thought, even more than for the subject matter with which it deals or the information which it may convey — these are instruments for the worthy use of leisure. Moreover, some part of the leisure of every citizen, man or woman, should be given to the willing support of those causes, religious, ethical, relief, educational, which have the public interest as their end, and which in our American society are fortunately left for their advancement to the sphere of liberty and the voluntary coöperation of individual men and women.

Those notions of the school, which would fix its aim as the preparation for work rather than for leisure, are in contradiction not only to the etymology of the word school itself, but to every sound notion of education. Guidance in the right use of leisure is vastly more important than what is now called vocational guidance. One hundred youths will find vocations unaided where one will know what to do with such leisure as he may obtain. It cannot be too often repeated that the educational process is an unending one. While it is based on infancy and its prolongation in man, it reaches out to include the whole of human life, with its constantly new adjustments between man and his environment. The right balance between work and leisure, the development of those wants which increase the value of work and of those tastes which increase the value of leisure, are at the bottom of the problem of human education.*

* Report for 1923-24, pp. 23-25.

VIII

THE NEW EDUCATION IN NEED OF REFORM

PREMATURE SPECIALIZATION OR BASIC TRAINING?

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

THE School of Journalism already has developed a strong *esprit de corps* and its members do their work with an industry that is truly indefatigable. The Director in his report sets out in highly interesting fashion the detailed life and work of the School during the past year. His experience and observation lead him to point out certain unwelcome facts that should not escape the notice of those whose immediate concern is with other parts of the University. Among these unwelcome facts are: the very poor grasp on a modern European language on the part of those who profess to have studied this language for some time in school or in college or both; the shocking ignorance of classical and Biblical allusions in English literature on the part of those who profess to know something of literary history and to have studied it; and the very limited vocabulary of those who have been receiving systematic instruction for a number of years and who are popularly supposed to have been led to read at least some of the great masters of English style. It is true that the professional school finds and exposes with relentless accuracy the weaknesses and defects in the school and college teaching that have preceded it; but it is little short of deplorable that there should be so much and so various evidence of the utter worthlessness, judged by lasting results, of a large part of the work done, or supposed to be done, in elementary school, in secondary school and in college.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

In the last Annual Report (pp. 16-23) some discussion was had of the widespread public criticism of present-day education

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 39-40.

and the probable grounds for it. The suggestions then made were more or less widely discussed throughout the country both on the platform and in the press. They were often supported; they were sometimes attacked; they were never refuted. During the year the evidences of widespread dissatisfaction with education as now organized and conducted have multiplied with some rapidity. The English people, with that sagacity and serious purpose that so characterize their action in the presence of any practical problem, have completed and made public a series of reports on the main groups of subjects of modern instruction which are in the highest degree significant. These reports deal with the ancient classics, with the English language and literature, with the natural sciences and with the modern languages. Nothing so complete, so well ordered, or so admirable has yet been done in any other land. At the same time the French, greatly disturbed by the practical results which have followed the important changes that were introduced into the program of secondary instruction twenty years ago, are giving sympathetic attention to the proposals of M. Léon Bérard, Minister of Public Instruction, which in effect call for a repudiation of the principles and policies that underlay the so-called reforms of 1902, and for a return to the far sounder program of secondary education that had previously existed. What the French in 1902 called reforms were those backward steps that are taken at intervals in the history of education, by which an early differentiation and specialization of studies were insisted upon, with a view not to the general training of youth, but to fit individuals for specific careers. After twenty years the results of this policy are so unhappy and so unsatisfactory that the wisest leaders of French public opinion are demanding a return to sound and well-tested educational principle. M. Bérard, together with M. Appell, the distinguished Rector of the University of Paris, is pointing out that a wrong turn of the road was taken in 1902, and that the true mission of secondary education is to develop young men and young women of trained minds capable of adapting them-

selves to the varying requirements of social life without any immediate attention to the special career which they may elect to follow. This is sound doctrine and France will do well to heed its preaching. It is worth noting that the Chamber of Commerce of Lyons, a body of severely practical men of affairs, has recorded an expression of its opinion that the results of the present program of secondary instruction are regrettable. This body of men of industry and finance expressly criticize the abandonment of Latin and Greek, and the doing away with those substantial courses of instruction which at one time did so much to develop character and personality.

Similar and very striking testimony was given by the accredited representatives of the Labor Party before the English Committee to inquire into the position of classics in the educational system of the United Kingdom. These witnesses told the Committee that the Labor Party was seriously concerned with the fact that in industrial districts education is too much limited to utilitarian subjects, that there is lack of opportunity for children of the working classes to get a classical education by which many of them are well suited to benefit, and that it is important to provide a sufficient number of secondary schools to offer instruction and training of this type. These are the answers of practical experience and practical men to the unhappy theorizing of recent years, which has played so large a part in breaking down the effectiveness of the work of the schools and colleges, not alone in one land but in many lands. The time has come to call a halt, and to offer the youth of the next generation bread and not a stone.

If the illustrations of the waste and ineffectiveness of present-day education were drawn from American experience alone the response of the clique would quickly be that the observer was either a cynic or a pessimist, or both. The fact is, however, that both in England and in France, as well as in the United States, the evidence is both cumulative and overwhelming. The fol-

lowing significant passage is taken from an article entitled "The New Humanism," which recently appeared in the *London Nation*:

The other day, a man of letters who had travelled about the country for a couple of years engaged in antiquarian research related that, in his frequent conversations with squire, rector, doctor, and so forth, he had found a singular unanimity of belief that the elementary schools were a failure, and for this reason: that though the boys and girls certainly seemed to be benefiting by their study while they were in actual attendance at school, most of them appeared to lose the whole of their acquirements in a year or two, and to revert to the general type of illiterate ignorance.

The other day, those specially interested in secondary education had a great shock when their eyes were opened to the sinister fact that, in the "Locals" and similar examinations, the general level of work had never been so low and the percentage of failures so high.

The other day, the Journal of the Society of Arts reported, in effect, that candidates in increasingly large numbers presented themselves for certificates in French and German and Spanish and Shorthand, and other respectable branches of knowledge, without the ability to write either in the literary or calligraphic sense. In the 51,267 papers examined, the handwriting was sometimes so bad that the answers could not be read; and we must therefore derive what comfort we can from the statement that there has been "a slight improvement in composition," and that there is less of "the hopelessly bad English which has been so common."

The other day, a manager of a great place of business in London declared that few of the many boys employed there could ever be promoted to higher positions, because, whether they came from secondary schools or elementary schools, they could neither speak nor write correctly, and were so lacking in the groundwork of English that correction of their mistakes was impossible.

We do not wish to multiply instances or to take the quoted opinions with less than the usual discount; but, on the other hand, we cannot afford to ignore them and the evidence they afford of some general defect in our educational system. That defect can be named in a single word: it is superficiality — the tendency of the schools to build a showy, top-heavy erection upon no foundation at all. There are few schools exempt from this charge. One and all they "cram" something or other. They cram by choice, or compulsion, or request, and they are all like-minded in minimizing or omitting the one thing needful.

This sharply phrased criticism is but one of many. If, then, the educational disease be diagnosed as one of waste and superficiality, what is the cure? The answer is that the cure is to be found in a broader scholarship; in a deeper and sounder study of the process of education, its history and its aims; in a clearer comprehension of its philosophic foundation; and in a better understanding of its interrelations with the changing social, economic and intellectual life of man. . . .

The too intense study of method in education will quickly sterilize the whole teaching process. It is partly through the exaltation and exaggeration of method that present-day education in elementary and secondary schools has become so wasteful and so inefficient. The one sound basis for effective method in teaching is a thorough understanding of the subject matter to be taught. Education cannot dispense with scholarship.

Other causes powerfully contributing to wastefulness and inefficiency in education have been the spread of the doctrines that one subject of study is as profitable as another provided only it be thoroughly pursued; that training, to be effective, must be specialized and particular, and that there are no knowledges or disciplines of general usefulness and value; that school and college education should be dominated by an immediate and narrowly economic aim, rather than by moral purpose and a broadly economic accomplishment. Forty years ago it was properly urged that the educational process be based upon a more complete understanding of psychology. In the interval psychology has demonstrated its capacity to become both frivolous and inconsequent, so that it now makes much difference on what sort of an understanding of psychology the educational process is formulated and carried on. Not everything that calls itself psychology need necessarily be accepted as such.

No small part of the social and political diseases and disorders that are now so generally discussed may be traced to the destruction through unsound educational methods of that common body of knowledge and intellectual and moral experience which held

men together through a community of understanding and of appreciation. A steadily growing unity has been displaced for a chaotic multiplicity. Pluralism, the non-religious form of polytheism, is precisely what William James, who was greatly enamored of it, described it to be, "a turbid, muddled, gothic sort of effort, without a sweeping outline and with little pictorial nobility." * In all its forms, philosophical and other, it is a flat denial of all that is most worth while in human experience and an open surrender of any hope either to understand or to improve the universe. Moreover, it is self-contradictory, for if there is no One there cannot possibly be a Many. It might have been supposed that Socrates had made this postulate plain once for all, but perhaps it is no longer fashionable for philosophers to know either Greek or history.†

IN THE CONTROL OF THE BEHAVIORIST

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

At no time in history have the forces and resources of education been so productive as they are at this moment. Expenditures upon education have reached colossal sums in almost every land, particularly in the United States. Physical provision in school buildings and grounds, in playing fields, and in all the appanages of school, college and university life and work is quite endless in extent and variety. It is indeed a rare community in the United States where a schoolhouse or other building devoted to education is not the largest and most striking structure in the city, town or village. The capacity and cultivation of leaders in American education are greater now than they have ever previously been. When a group representing these men and women meets, for example, as Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching or as the governing board of any one of the several associations of colleges and universities, they will quickly be recognized as the outstanding and worthy

* *A Pluralistic Universe* (New York: 1909), p. 45.

† Report for 1920-21, pp. 23-27, 29-31.

representatives of the nation's highest type of intelligence, and also the finest type of public servant. Into the hands of these men and women and their associates advanced study and research are pouring, year by year, month by month, and almost day by day, new richness of material for use in education for understanding, for classification and for interpretation. Notwithstanding all this, the present-day results of the educational process and of long-time exposure to systematic educational influences are admitted to be anything but satisfying.

May it not be that the same lack of adjustment which is afflicting the economic life of the world is also afflicting education? May it not be that here, too, capacity for production has outrun our powers of distribution and of educational consumption, and that as a result we have among our vast armies of students whole regiments, brigades and divisions of the educationally unemployed? When the leaders of education are so competent, when the physical equipment for their work is so splendid and when the material at their disposal is so rich and so ample, surely there can be no fault to be found with production in education. The trouble, if trouble there be, must be looked for in imperfect distribution and in lack of power of consumption. Put bluntly, these are evidenced on the part of graduates of excellent schools and colleges by their bad and careless use of English, by their bad and careless manners, and by their bad and careless standards of taste and interest. Apparently much that is so richly poured out over and upon them runs to waste and fails to fertilize as it should those traits and powers and possessions which are the evidence of a liberal education.

There is food for thought in the analogy between the depression in the economic life of the world and the depression in the field of education. No doubt part of this failure in distribution and consumption, perhaps the controlling part, is traceable to the anti-philosophies and to the pseudo-psychologies which are so eagerly proclaimed, even by those in high place, and which, when they have not caused entire misdirection of educational

energy, have at least brought a vast amount of confusion and distress. Those who believe neither in mind nor in spirit may perhaps train animals, but they cannot possibly educate human beings. It seems difficult for many to understand that childhood is not an end in itself but merely a quickly developing stage in a definite process. The child is not only father of the man, but the child is the man in process of development. Were there no infancy there would be no need of education and little possibility of it. All this has been long-time demonstrated and ought to be perfectly familiar, but it is just now pushed aside by an odd transfiguration of childhood as if it were a static state and an end in itself.

Moreover, the individual is the unit and aim of all education. The individual precedes the social unit, and it is out of individuals and their willing or unwilling coöperation that the social unit is constituted. It is this truth which is the key to an understanding of the fact that all true education is education in freedom, in liberty. It is the mounting through discipline to self-discipline. It is the concerted effort of the elders to do what they can to make possible for those who come after them the understanding, the exercise, and the enjoyment of freedom. Liberty is a hard and difficult lesson to learn. It involves the freedom to make mistakes and errors as well as to make successes. It involves meeting the temptation to do wrong as well as the opportunity to do right. Liberty has its dangers and its limitations, but so far as human history goes no form or type of despotism, whether individual or group or social, can for a moment be put in comparison with it.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

Therefore, the pressing problem in present-day education, more especially in these United States, is to increase distribution and the power of consumption. It is to get hold and to make use of the vast amounts of material that have been inherited from the

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 28-30.

experience of a busy and notable past and that are enriched and added to by the activities of a busy and notable present.

That many are conscious of the deficiencies of present-day education is testified to by the widespread and increasingly popular movement for adult education. Those who take advantage of the opportunities and resources so freely and so wisely offered after school and college have been put behind forever, are not only endeavoring to keep pace with new knowledge, new thought, and new interpretation, but they are in many cases consciously endeavoring to fill gaps and to repair damage in the work of the schools and the colleges themselves. Therefore, the movement for adult education is both an invitation and a warning. It is an invitation to remember that much remains to be done when school and college days are over, and it is a warning that much that school and college have attempted to do has not been well or competently done.

Columbia University in its every part keeps before it the individual student as an end in himself and training for freedom as its aim. This would not be possible unless the university teacher were himself schooled in freedom and addicted to freedom. He too must have the opportunity to make mistakes as well as to score successes. Since the days when at Göttingen *Lehrfreiheit* began to establish itself in the life of modern universities, it has had a hard road to travel. Even today it is the subject of frequent criticism, of abuse, and of querulous complaint. But there can be no training for freedom on the part of those who are not themselves free.

The Dean of Teachers College, in his very striking report for the past year, discusses with illuminating argument and illustration the influence upon education of the industrial era in which the world so largely lives, and he examines the implications of the conscious effort to use education to remake the world. He warns vigorously against subordinating the individual to the machine, and points out with clearness and conviction how the individual can be adapted to a changed world without being subordinated to

its mechanical aspects and influences, however dominant these may appear to be.*

NOVELTY OR TRUTH

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

The spirit and temper of journalism, which may perhaps be fairly described as day-to-dayness, is the besetting vice of the present day and generation. It is the enemy of constant and continuing interest in any serious subject, and it elevates superficiality to the plane of an occupation. We have at our disposal a quick record of contemporary happenings of more or less interest and importance, and an abundance of critical comment upon them, which could not have been foreseen or foreshadowed a hundred years ago. This has been an incalculable gain to civilization and to the education of public opinion. Puck has not only put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes, but his electric spark has annihilated time and made of space a mere convenience. If this vast development were kept by the public in its proper place and treated with a due sense of proportion, there would be no ground for critical comment. What has happened, however, is that the spirit and temper of journalism, of this day-to-dayness, have spread over pretty much the whole of mankind and have substituted a rapid survey of the surface of things for a sound and well-balanced understanding of their length and breadth and depth. It is as if one were to stand upon the shore of the ocean and attempt to estimate the movements of its waters, the secrets of its depths, and the variety of its influences by watching the waves that with greater force or less roll up on the sands hour after hour. What is called news, that is, a happening which is deemed to have an emotional or intellectual interest, occupies not only the first place but the only place in the mind that has surrendered itself to the spirit of journalism. The most recent happening must be instantly reported, even at the cost of com-

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 30-31.

plete accuracy. Time will not permit the sort of inquiry that may be needed to substantiate a rumor or to interpret correctly an incident or event. As a result of experience, the daily press comes to have an almost uncanny instinct for dealing at short notice with these matters without going far astray. But nevertheless, when this habit of mind is communicated to the larger public which is untrained and undisciplined, the results are nothing short of deplorable. With such the printed word comes to have an authority which the writer of it would never venture to assume, and a bit of misinformation, once started on its way, travels with incredible speed, while the correction or denial goes haltingly and inconspicuously after.

This spirit and temper have notably invaded American education to its grave undoing. It is less than half a century since an urbane and accomplished professor in Columbia College used to advise his students to spend no time upon a book that was not at least a hundred years old, since, if a book had not survived that long, there was no telling whether it was worth reading or not. Today the number of younger students who know the names of a dozen books that are a hundred years old, much less read them, is not very large. That this is not an event of yesterday, is well illustrated by that passage in *Martin Chuzzlewit* in which Charles Dickens makes an American with a military title reply to Martin Chuzzlewit's inquiry as to the condition of poetry, the theater, literature, and the arts in the United States, in these words: "We are a busy people, Sir, and have no time for reading mere notions. We don't mind 'em if they come to us in newspapers along with almighty strong stuff of another sort, but darn your books."

A passion for information as to current events has driven out both knowledge and scholarship. These events may or may not be correctly reported and interpreted. They may or may not be of considerable or permanent importance. Given only the fact that they are current events, they are hastened upon the attention of curious youth with all the paraphernalia that would accom-

pany the revelation of a fundamental law of nature or an interpretation of the rise and fall of the Roman Empire. It is an instinct of this point of view and of this method of mental occupation to put the newest book in the place of the best book and the newest theory in the place of the soundest theory. Since the time of Thomas à Kempis and John Bunyan it has not been usual for a "best seller" to find its way into the history of literature. Novelty, instead of arousing suspicion by reason of its very newness, offers attraction by reason of its departure from that which has heretofore been. To find this spirit and temper so widely abroad in the world is distressing enough; but to find it invading the school and college is disheartening in the extreme.

The educational institutions of the nation, like its courts, have been supposed to be above the ebb and flow of mere temporary passion or passing appetite, and to deal with those far-reaching principles and well-established laws that hold the moral and intellectual order together, give it coherence, and make possible its understanding. Current events have significance only if noted and judged, to use Spinoza's noble phrase, *sub specie aeternitatis*.

The one competent judge of the significance and importance of current events, is he who is so soundly grounded in the meaning of events that have gone before that he can judge the newest happenings not according to their newness but by their value. They may be new and of highest significance; they may also be new and of no importance whatsoever. Novelty is neither a recommendation nor an obstacle. It marks simply the latest change in the content of the eternal time order. An education which does not understand this fact, or an education which neglects to emphasize and to interpret this fact, is little, if any, better than no education at all. The search for truth is something quite distinct from the search for novelty. To quote Victor Hugo's well-known words: *Ceci tuera cela*.*

* Report for 1921-22, pp. 35-38.

SELF-EXPRESSION OR DISCIPLINE?

NOVEMBER 3, 1913

The younger generation shows many signs of being too impatient to prepare for life. What is called vocational training is being steadily pushed down through the secondary into the elementary schools, and presumably it will soon reach the cradle. The old notion that a child should be so trained as to have the fullest and most complete possession of its faculties and its competences, in order to rise in efficiency, to gain larger rewards, and to render more complete service, has given way to the new notion that it is quite enough if a child is trained in some aptitude to enable it to stay where it first finds itself. Of course, under the guise of progress, this is retrogression. Carried to its logical result, it would mean a static and a stratified social order. It would put an end to individual initiative and to individual opportunity. It is not difficult to foretell what results would follow both to civilization and to social order and comfort. The basis for any true vocational preparation is training to know a few things well and thoroughly, and in gaining such knowledge to form those habits of mind and of will that fit the individual to meet new duties and unforeseen emergencies. This is the real reason why the traditional training given at the University of Oxford has produced such stupendous results for generations. Of course, the Oxford training has had, to some extent at least, selected material to work upon; but it has done its work amazingly well. Whether in statesmanship or at the bar or in the army or in diplomacy or in large administrative undertakings in business, the man trained at Oxford has won first place by reason of the character and quality of his performance. No such result has been obtained, and no such result need be expected, from a school and college training which is a quick smattering of many things. At the bottom of the educational process lies discipline, and the purpose of discipline is to develop the power of self-discipline. When discipline is withdrawn, dawdling quickly enters, and the habit of dawdling

is as corrupting to the intellect as it is to the morals. The patience to be thorough, the concentration to understand, and the persistence to grasp and to apply, are the three traits that most clearly mark off the truly educated and disciplined man from his uneducated and undisciplined fellow, and they are precisely the three traits which are most overlooked and neglected in the modern school and college curriculum. A school is supposed to be modern and progressive if it offers something new, regardless of the fact that this something new may be not only useless, but harmful, as an educational instrument.

With the growth of democracy the need for self-discipline becomes not less, but far greater. When great bodies of men were controlled by power from without, then they were in so far disciplined; now that in all parts of the world men are shaping their own collective action without let or hindrance, the need for self-discipline is many times greater than it ever was before. In an older civilization self-discipline was necessary for the protection of individual character; today it is necessary for the protection of society and all its huge interests.

Too much slovenly reading, particularly of newspapers and of magazines, but also of worthless books, stands in the way of education and enlightenment. In no field of human interest is the substitution of quantity for quality more fraught with damage and disorder than in that of reading. The builders of the Constitution of the United States and the great lawyers of the colonial and early national period knew but few books, but the books that they knew were first-rate books and they knew them well. Nothing contributed so much to the fullness of their minds, to the keenness of their intellects, or to the lasting character of the institutions that they built, as their reflective grasp on a few great books and on the principles and literary standards which those books taught and exemplified. Such a task as that which Gibbon set himself over a century ago would be impossible to-day, even for a syndicate of Gibbons. There are too many books now to enable another *History of the Decline and Fall of the*

Roman Empire to be composed. Productivity of the highest type is checked by the excess of facilities. This is true both of books and of physical apparatus. We could get along well with far fewer books and far less apparatus, and we should be likely to get more ideas and a higher type of human being. The universities of the world search restlessly for truth, but too often they overlook the indubitable which lies at their feet.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

Abelard, who both started and best typified the intellectual movement out of which the true university eventually sprang, died in 1142. His heretical teachings and his novelties of thought, bitterly resisted as they were by the orthodoxy of their age, became the accepted teachings of the generations that shortly followed. Were Abelard to come back, his curiosity would certainly be excited and his sense of humor roused by much that he would see and hear in the intellectual life of the twentieth century. He might well wonder whether, despite his amazing intellectual conquests made so long ago, he had not lived and taught in vain. Having insisted again and again that the use of reason precedes faith and leads up to it with the aid of revelation and grace, he would be confronted with the spectacle of countless numbers of men and women, all hugely pleased with the brightness of their own intellectual illumination, whose minds are blocked to the progress of reason by the barriers of prejudice and of fanatical prepossession, neither of which could hope for a moment to rise to the dignity of that faith which St. Bernard so stoutly upheld and extolled. Abelard would quickly discover that to overcome these prejudices and these fanatical prepossessions is a task far more severe than was that of routing the scholastic realists. Presently he would also discover that this very scholastic realism was back again and in control of the thought and action of men who do not know of its existence and to whom the language in which it was expounded is veritably a sealed book.

* Report for 1912-13, pp. 34-36.

Abelard would find men everywhere speaking of a common good, a common interest, a common advantage, as if this were something which had a real existence of its own quite apart from the good, the interest, the advantage of the individuals who make up a given community. He would find a whole scheme of social and political philosophy and an elaborate program of social and political action based upon this ancient fallacy which he thought himself to have laid safely to rest eight hundred years ago.

These are the ironies of progress in the intellectual life, and remind us once again of the stupendous waste in the life and achievements of men due to colossal and steadily increasing ignorance. There is no waste in the material world which compares with this. The endeavor of education to keep pace with the rapidly growing ignorance appears to be quite hopeless, since there are year by year so many new things of which to be ignorant. Mankind is confronted by the alternative of choosing to be content with an ignorance which is universal or of endeavoring to acquire an ignorance which is selective. If one is to give his voice for a selective ignorance, then he must have or be given a standard of value by which to measure his judgments of worth. This brings us back again to the time-old question, what knowledge is of most worth? Surely the answer must be that that knowledge is of most worth which assists man to establish the undisputed primacy of thought in order that it may interpret the data of sense, and to accept life as a great adventure toward intellectual and moral perfection which no artificial process can control and no mechanical formula explain.

It is a far cry from Mont Sainte Geneviève to Morningside Heights, and the materials of knowledge, like the subjects of academic debate, are widely different now from what they were then; but as Horace reminds us,

Coelum, non animum mutant, qui trans mare currunt.

The academic skies have changed with the centuries, but not the essential characteristics of human nature. What was once a bat-

tle between reason and faith, fought with the weapons of theology and philosophy, is now a battle between reason and prejudice, fought with the new weapons forged in the modern furnace of economic, social and political discipline and interest. The costly, ineffective, and even demoralizing character of much contemporary school and college work is due to the fact that so many of those who conduct it can neither look back down the road over which mankind has come nor forward along the road over which mankind is moving. They live in a state of unstable intellectual equilibrium, without cognizance or appreciation of those ideas, those institutions, and those ideals which silently and unconsciously shape and guide the action or the inaction of men. The free-mindedness and the rich-mindedness of Abelard are a precious possession and no true scholar is without them. His ideal of education was a sound one. *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* Who will cultivate and civilize the teachers?

The present-day mocking appeal to an infant that he give expression to himself represents the abdication of education. This appeal might just as well be directed to a physical vacuum. To starve youth by depriving it of intellectual and moral nourishment, and to cripple and disable it by depriving it of the discipline of experience, are among the newest and most popular forms of cruelty that have been devised to make education impossible. The results are apparent on every hand. Much of the spoken English of both teachers and taught would assuredly affright even the Venerable Bede who was accustomed to simple beginnings. The ability to read has well-nigh disappeared if the reading be serious, instructive, or ennobling; the ability to write, so far as it exists at all, delights to manifest itself in forms of exceptional crudeness and vulgarity; the ability to perform the simplest mathematical operations is, to all intents and purposes, confined to teachers of mathematics or to specialists in that subject. Algebra and geometry, whether plane or solid, are as unfamiliar as the Laws of Manu. The state of good manners, which are the instinctive mark of good breeding and sound discipline,

may be observed and estimated in any public place. The extensive and intensive study of natural science, now carried on over more than a full generation, has made no impression whatever upon the public mind. That mind continues to come to its conclusions and to formulate its choices with serene unconcern as to whether any such thing as scientific method exists. Views as to all sorts of things have displaced accurate knowledge of fundamental things. If these be thought hard words, let him who so thinks look about him. Perhaps Abelard should come back and begin his task all over again.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

Heraclitus of Ephesus has been dead some twenty-five hundred years, but a statement attributed to him, although not to be found in that form in the collected fragments of his writings and sayings, has never been improved upon. "The major problem of human society is to combine that degree of liberty without which law is tyranny with that degree of law without which liberty becomes license." The problem so tersely and so completely stated is still, after all the intervening centuries, the problem with which mankind is confronted. Ordinarily, this problem is only discussed in reference to the political organization of society, but it immediately and directly concerns the intellectual life and the problem of education. Year in and year out, college faculties discuss programs of study, and year in and year out they manifest the same blithe unconcern for the teachings of experience, the same eager interest in fallacies long since exploded, and the same devoted attachment to formulas that are merely words. They often know nothing of what is being said and done in a sister institution a hundred miles away or even in another part of the institution of which they themselves are members.

Through ignorance the present-day banners of progress are everywhere emblazoned with the names of some of the oldest

* Report for 1923-24, pp. 16-20.

of humanity's discarded failures. The shaping of an individual's own intellectual life and the preparation of a scheme to be adopted for training youth to a life of freedom are concerned at once, and always, with the distinction between law and tyranny, as well as with that between liberty and license. Human experience has achieved certain very definite results, and these results the youth is entitled to know without being compelled to undertake the quite impossible task of finding them out himself. Life is far too short to permit every individual to live over again, without guidance or instruction, the entire stretch of time between the dawn of history and the twentieth century. The first essential of a well-grounded school and college training is that the elements of that knowledge and achievement which constitute human experience shall be given to the youth for his information, for his discipline, and for his inspiration. The school manager or the college faculty that attempts in any way, whether through unconcern or through timorousness, to dodge this question is thereby abdicating as an educational influence.

Nor is it in any wise true that all subjects of intellectual interest are of equal value and that the important thing is not what one studies but how he studies it. This is a popular foolishness that is contradicted by the daily experience of everyone. The various subdivisions of knowledge fall into an order of excellence as educational material that is determined by their respective relations to the development of the reflective reason. Utility is, of course, an important consideration; but utility is a term that may be given a very broad or a very narrow meaning. There are utilities higher and utilities lower, and under no circumstances will the true teacher ever permit the former to be sacrificed to the latter. This would be done if, in their zeal to fit the youth for self-support, the school and college were to neglect to lay the foundation for his higher intellectual and spiritual life. Without this they would make of him an industrious, and possibly a thrifty, animal, but not a human being with all the possibilities of aspira-

For example, a language, such as the French, which is the product of a people with a long and distinguished history, with a great literature, and with manifold contributions to human knowledge, is infinitely more valuable as an educational instrument than the language of a people without any such background of accomplishment. A science, such as physics, which deals with forces and phenomena that are fundamental in the world about us cannot be passed by without leaving a gap in one's intellectual equipment which cannot be otherwise filled. Just now there is a strong tendency to exalt unduly certain recently developed fields of knowledge which as yet consist almost entirely of futile talk and unproved opinion. For this very reason these subjects have more or less fascination for present-day American youth, but their educational value is practically non-existent. There is an odd idea abroad that youth may, in some mysterious way, be trained for citizenship without being taught anything, and that they may be made useful members of society without the inestimable advantage of discipline. Wherever these crudities go, they either weaken the educational process or obstruct it entirely.

Throughout the nation there is obvious and often expressed concern over the widespread lawlessness that has attracted the attention of the whole world. This lawlessness has causes that lie far deeper than most present discussion would seem to realize. The multiplication of courts, the speeding up of criminal process, and the infliction of more severe sentences upon offenders, would not affect the prevailing lawlessness in the least. This law-breaking habit has grown up through lack of discipline and self-discipline, through lack of real education, and it will not be checked or overcome until those deficiencies are repaired. Law-breakers are almost uniformly graduates of our common schools, and not infrequently of our colleges as well. This fact tells the story. They have not been disciplined, trained, educated, either at home, at school, or at college, to those habits of self-control, self-mastery, and self-direction which are the only effective pro-

tection society has against lawbreaking and lawlessness. Of course, in addition, law must learn to mind its own business. It must not attempt to invade the field of civil liberty, for if it does, it will surely be resisted, either covertly or openly, and thereby the habit of lawbreaking will receive added strength. Robert Browning's line states a profound truth:

Those laws are laws that can enforce themselves.

If law will confine itself to its own proper field, and if human beings are given that discipline which is the ladder that leads to self-discipline, the story that the next generation will have to tell will be a far different and far more encouraging one.*

THE VALUE OF THE CLASSICAL DISCIPLINES

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

That there is shortly to be a widespread reëxamination of the value of the ancient classics as educational instruments appears to be indicated by many signs. Some of those who have been most contemptuous of classical study are beginning to doubt the entire wisdom of the extreme positions to which they have been driven. Some of those who have been indifferent are beginning to give evidence of remorse as the results of their indifference are becoming increasingly apparent. The more the subject is examined without passion and in the light of sound principle and wide experience, the more clear does it become that in the study of Latin there is found a quite incomparable discipline for language studies of all sorts; that the embryology of civilization is just as significant and important as the embryology of organic forms, and that this can only be studied under the powerful microscopes provided by the Greek and Latin languages; that no educated citizen of a modern free state can afford to ignore the lessons taught by the Roman Empire, which for centuries held together in a commonwealth that was both prosperous and contented peoples widely differing in religious faith, in racial origin, and in

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 17-20.

vernacular speech; and that no achievements of the human spirit and no forms of human expression have surpassed, or even equalled, those of the Greeks in the arts of sculpture and architecture, in poetry and philosophy. It was Benjamin Franklin, an American of the rugged type whose name is not usually associated with classical training or an appreciation of classical learning, who wrote:

When youth are told that the great men whose lives and actions they read in history spoke two of the best languages that ever were, the most expressive, copious, beautiful; and that the finest writings, the most correct compositions, the most perfect productions of human wit and wisdom are in those languages, which have endured ages and will endure while there are men; that no translation can do them justice or give the pleasure found in reading the originals; that those languages contain all science; that one of them is become almost universal, being the language of learned men in all countries; that to understand them is a distinguishing ornament, they may be thereby made desirous of learning those languages and their industry sharpened in the acquisition of them.*

This encomium is couched in terms that were appropriate to the middle part of the eighteenth century when it was written, but in all essentials it is not limited in time.

It is a very practical question how to repair the damage that has been done by growing neglect of the ancient classics for a generation past. This cannot be accomplished in a day, but a beginning toward its accomplishment should no longer be postponed. Perhaps it is worth while to consider whether the city of Athens itself might not become, through world-wide coöperation and the joint effort of scholars and universities in many lands, the effective center of a new Renaissance, of a twentieth-century revival of interest in the origins and excellences of man's intellectual and spiritual achievements. Athens is the seat of an admirable university which would perhaps be willing to accept the task of organizing and directing such a movement. There are in Athens excellent schools for the study of ancient Greek civil-

* *The Writings of Benjamin Franklin*, edited by A. H. Smyth (New York: 1905), II, 394.

zation, maintained in the name of Great Britain, of France, of the United States, and of Germany. Why should not these schools be brought into a federal relationship, not only with each other, but with the University of Athens, and for a generation to come devote their efforts to arousing a new interest in the civilizations and accomplishments of Greece and Rome? Where else in the world would the environment be at once so inviting and so compelling? The sky, the sea, the hills, the very soil, recall the adjectives of Homer and the similes of the lyric poets. Without moving from his place, the visitor may turn his eye to one spot after another, made famous through human association or human achievement, that will not be forgotten while history endures. Let such a visitor climb the Acropolis at Athens and go down toward sunset to sit at the corner of the Temple of the Wingless Victory, most beautiful and pathetic of ruins. Right in front of him is the scene of the battle of Salamis. Beyond the hills to the right the Persians were beaten back at Marathon, and the history of Western civilization so made possible. In a little grove of trees in the midst of the blue fields in front of him were the Academy of Plato and the Lyceum of Aristotle. The white road stretching across the plain is the highway to Eleusis, while off of it to the left is Sunium. Under the hill is the great theater in which immortal dramas were read to the delight of the Athenian people. Just below, and almost within a stone's throw, is Mars Hill, where the strident voice of Paul the Apostle may almost be heard thundering out, "Ye men of Athens!" Just beyond, still stand the remains of the very platform from which Demosthenes appealed to the Athenian people to beat back the Macedonian tyrant. All these, and a hundred other scenes and associations of hardly less significance, are within sight. As the western sun sinks to its setting the visitor with a soul will learn both the full significance of the city with the violet crown and what it means to visit the home of a marvelous and a lasting civilization.

Athens could be the capital city of a new kingdom of light,

and to its defense and upholding there might go as crusaders high-spirited and ambitious youth from every land, until the broken links in our history of the understanding of civilization are restored. This kingdom would be alight with liberty, for man "secures his freedom by keeping hold always of the past and treasuring up the best out of the past, so that in a present that may be angry or sordid he can call back memories of calm or of high passion, in a present that requires resignation or courage he can call back the spirit with which brave men long ago faced the same evils. He draws out of the past high thoughts and great emotions; he also draws the strength that comes from communion or brotherhood." * †

NOVEMBER 1, 1926

The modern Philistine is just what Matthew Arnold described him, inaccessible to and impatient of ideas. Facts are his delight, especially if they be isolated and uninterpreted. He does not think because he cannot, and at every opportunity he weakens or destroys the necessary tools of thought.

It is one of the curious and unexplained phenomena of human history that long before man had any but the most general and superficial knowledge of the structure and laws of the physical universe, his spirit poured itself out in amazing revelations and conquests. The high-water mark of religious thought and feeling, of philosophic insight and interpretation, of poetry, of oratory and of the plastic arts, was reached when men had not so much as an inkling of that elementary knowledge of the material universe which is now possessed by every intelligent child. Standards in all that has to do with mental activity and expression were set early and amazingly high. That is why no real education is possible without some appreciation of those standards and some knowledge of their meaning and their significance. When the modern Philistine says that all time and effort spent upon the

* Gilbert Murray, *Essays and Addresses* (London: 1921), p. 13.

† Report for 1920-21, pp. 32-35.

study of the civilizations of Greece and Rome is wasted, he thereby writes himself down not only as without education, but as incapable of being educated. Like a squirrel in its revolving cage, he may go through the motions of progress, but of real progress he can make none for the simple reason that he has no point from which to start and no ideal at which to aim.

Modern education needs nothing so much as stout resistance to Philistinism in its every manifestation, and a revival of the classic spirit, which no one has described better than Kenyon Cox:

The Classic Spirit is the disinterested search for perfection; it is the love of clearness and reasonableness and self-control; it is, above all, the love of permanence and of continuity. It asks of a work of art, not that it shall be novel or effective, but that it shall be fine and noble. It seeks not merely to express individuality or emotion but to express disciplined emotion and individuality restrained by law. It strives for the essential rather than the accidental, the eternal rather than the momentary — loves impersonality more than personality, and feels more power in the orderly succession of the hours and the seasons than in the violence of earthquake or of storm. And it loves to steep itself in tradition. It would have each new work connect itself in the mind of him who sees it with all the noble and lovely works of the past, bringing them to his memory and making their beauty and charm a part of the beauty and charm of the work before him. It does not deny originality and individuality — they are as welcome as inevitable. It does not consider tradition as immutable or set rigid bounds to invention. But it desires that each new presentation of truth and beauty shall show us the old truth and the old beauty, seen only from a different angle and colored by a different medium. It wishes to add link by link to the chain of tradition, but it does not wish to break the chain.* †

* Kenyon Cox, *The Classic Point of View* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1911), pp. 3-5.

Report for 1925-26, pp. 25-26.

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PART THREE

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION

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IX

THE FUNCTION OF THE COLLEGE

PLACE IN THE AMERICAN SYSTEM

OCTOBER 6, 1902

As the system of higher education in the United States has developed it has become apparent that we have substituted three institutions — secondary school, college, and university — for the two — secondary school and university — which exist in France and Germany. The work done in the United States by the best colleges is done in France and Germany one-half by the secondary school and one-half by the university. The training given in Europe differs in many ways from that given here, but from an administrative point of view the comparison just made is substantially correct. The college, as we have it, is peculiar to our own national system of education, and is perhaps its strongest, as it certainly is its most characteristic, feature. It breaks the sharp transition which is so noticeable in Europe between the close surveillance and prescribed order of the secondary school and the absolute freedom of the university. Its course of liberal study comes just at the time in the student's life to do him most good, to open and inform his intelligence and to refine and strengthen his character. Its student life, social opportunities, and athletic sports are all additional elements of usefulness and of strength. It has endeared itself to three or four generations of the flower of our American youth and it is more useful today than at any earlier time.

For all of these reasons I am anxious to have it preserved as part of our educational system and so adjusted to the social and educational conditions which surround us that a college training may be an essential part of the higher education of an American whether he is destined to a professional career or to a business occupation. It seems to me clear that if the college is not so ad-

justed it will, despite its recent rapid growth, lose its prestige and place of honor in our American life, and that it may eventually disappear entirely, to the great damage of our whole educational system.*

OCTOBER 5, 1903

The last Annual Report discussed at some length the questions involved (1) in fixing the proper standards of professional study in a university and (2) in endeavoring to preserve the American college from the forces which now threaten its destruction through the substitution of the two-fold organization of secondary school and university which prevails on the continent of Europe for the three-fold organization of secondary school, college, and university, which prevails in the United States. Arguments were adduced to make it plain (*a*) that the stage of advancement measured by graduation from a secondary school is not sufficiently high to serve as the basis for the best type of professional study or to enable a university to train really well-educated professional students, and (*b*) that the stage of advancement measured by graduation from a four-year college course, the requirements for admission to which are those now established for admission to the Freshman Class of Columbia College, is so high as to delay unduly the young man's entrance upon the active practice of his profession, whether it be law, medicine, engineering, architecture, or teaching, and to prolong unwisely the period during which the student remains under tutelage. Such a policy, continued indefinitely, would tend to bring about habits of intellectual and moral weakness and dependence rather than those of strength and independent self-reliance. It was also pointed out that if the choice in fixing the terms of admission to a university professional school must be made between graduation from a four-year college course (or its equivalent) and no college course at all, it would, in a majority of cases, be the latter, and that, in consequence, the weight of the influence and authority of the university professional

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 48-49.

schools would be thrown against a college education instead of in its favor. The effect of this would be to hasten the elimination of the college from our American scheme of education — a most unfortunate and possibly a disastrous outcome.

As a method of solving this problem, which would both protect and support the college and also put the professional schools upon a wiser and more serviceable foundation than that measured either by graduation from a four-year college course or by graduation from a secondary school only, it was suggested that in addition to the four-year course now existing in Columbia College a two-year course should be established there, and that its satisfactory completion, or equivalent scholarship tested by examination, should be required for admission to the technical and professional schools of the University in the case of all candidates for degrees. During the year this proposal has been somewhat fully discussed both within and without the University with the result of strengthening my conviction that it is the wisest course for Columbia University, and for American universities generally, to pursue. Any other policy yet proposed will, I think, sooner or later destroy the American college as well as give us at least one generation of either undereducated or wastefully educated professional men holding university degrees. . . .

In any readjustment of the relations between the college and the professional schools, either at Columbia or elsewhere, it is essential to bear in mind that the college serves an end of its own and is not to be treated merely as a school preparatory to professional studies. Therefore, the readjustment must begin from and within the college itself, the peculiar purpose for which it exists being kept steadily in view.*

OCTOBER 5, 1903

It is a striking feature in all current discussions of American education that almost every participant admits that much time

* Report for 1902-3, pp. 23-25, 27.

now spent in formal schooling is unprofitably used — that is, wasted — but that no one will admit that the waste takes place in that part of the educational scheme in which his own work lies. The unprofitable use of time is always going on somewhere else. The college blames the secondary school, the secondary school blames the elementary school and points with scorn to the inefficiency of college teaching, while the elementary school insists that the fault is not in it. As I have stated publicly elsewhere,* the American boy who begins in the kindergarten and passes on through elementary school, secondary school, college, and professional school, is forced to spend four years without gaining any compensating advantage in intellectual growth or moral power as compared with what might be accomplished if his time were wisely and properly used. It is not that he knows too much when his formal education ends — no one is likely to make that charge — but the fault lies in the fact that, properly taught, he might have been even better trained and have gained even more from his school and college course in four years' less time. The first two years are lost in the elementary school where eight years are spent in doing the work of six, and the other two years, save for a portion of the student body, are lost in taking a four-year college course before entering the professional school. The value of an education is not to be measured wholly, or even chiefly, by the time spent in getting it. The secondary school, as represented by the good public high schools, is free from blame; it is doing its work relatively better than the elementary school and the college are doing theirs. The worst of all the methods proposed for improving our educational system is that which would still further increase the requirements for admission to college, and so load new burdens upon the already hard-pressed secondary schools.

The task of devising ways and means to meet existing difficulties is to fall, apparently, upon the university colleges; that is,

* "Some Pressing Problems," in *Proceedings of the National Educational Association*, at Minneapolis, Minn., July 7-11, 1902, pp. 66-75.

upon the colleges that are members of a university, as for example, Columbia, Harvard, Yale, Cornell, Chicago, and the great State universities of the West. The independent colleges — often called “small,” although the popular classification into large and small colleges has no educational value or significance — will be likely, it appears, in most cases to adopt whatever policy is worked out in the university colleges of the country. This tendency is already evident in the movement on the part of several independent colleges to shorten the normal undergraduate course from four years to three, following the example of Harvard College, although the conditions at the independent colleges and their requirements for admission are quite different from those prevailing at Harvard. It must be obvious that for any college whose standards of admission to the Freshman Class may be met in one year less than the time required to prepare for Harvard College, to follow Harvard in making the undergraduate course three years in length, is in reality to establish a two-year college course, measured by the Harvard standard and by the terms of admission to the Harvard Schools of Law and of Medicine. This fact illustrates once again that it is the quality of the college course, not its quantity, that is the main thing to keep in mind.

The college exists to foster sound learning and scholarship, habits of reflection and application, together with mental and spiritual growth and culture. To say that for these things leisure is needed is to say what is obvious; but to mistake mental sluggishness and lack of application for profitable leisure, and to wish to prolong such conditions, is to commit a grave crime against youth in the name of high ideals. There is growing evidence that the public, and the colleges themselves, are becoming familiar with the true facts regarding the dangers and losses that follow from an ill-planned and unwise use of time in school and college; in that case the improvement of existing conditions will not be long delayed.*

* Report for 1902-3, pp. 28-31.

OCTOBER 3, 1904

There is the same diversity of opinion in the University as exists throughout the country as to whether or not the familiar American college can be preserved in the reorganization of higher education which is upon us. It is perhaps fair to say that a small minority do not think it worth preserving. Those who value the college but who think it impossible to preserve that institution in its historic form, regard it as certain that the college will be compelled to give over one half of its present work to the secondary schools and the other half to the universities and their professional schools. Such a state of affairs would reproduce in the United States the educational organization of Germany. Those who value the college and believe it possible to preserve it by appropriate academic legislation, fall into two groups. The one group feel that the college would be stronger if it stood alone and admitted no admixture of professional studies into its program. The other group take the contrary view and hold that unless the college permits its students to choose professional courses in law, medicine, and technology as part of their curriculum, the college itself cannot continue long to exist.

So far as the consideration of the matter has proceeded, it may justifiably be said that the Faculty of Columbia College, and the judgment of the University as a whole, give assent to these conclusions:

1. The American college in general, and Columbia College in particular, can and should be maintained in its integrity as a school of liberal learning, essential both to the specialization of studies which follows and to the inculcation of those ideals of knowledge and of culture which are the choicest and most useful products of our historic civilization.
2. With the recent rapid growth of the elective system and the increase in the number of college students, there has been a noticeable laxity in the control and discipline of those students. As a result, the period of college residence is not always

as well spent as it should be in acquiring habits of industry and application and in promoting mental and moral growth.

3. The remedy for this condition is a closer oversight of undergraduate students and a stricter control of their curriculums. To attain these ends it is not necessary to sacrifice the benefits of an elective system, wisely framed and carefully administered.
4. The time element in a college curriculum is important, but not so important as the attainment of a certain standard of scholarly excellence and intellectual maturity. When that standard is reached, and not before that, the student should be graduated.
5. The professional schools of the University should require for admission the completion of a college curriculum not less than two years in length, or its equivalent to be tested by examination. This standard of admission, where not now fixed, *i.e.*, Schools of Medicine and of Applied Science, should be enforced as soon as practicable.
6. The College, and the University as a whole, will gain, not lose, by adhering to the policy of permitting undergraduate students to choose professional courses in law, medicine, technology, teaching, or fine arts, as part of a curriculum leading to the degree of bachelor of arts. There is earnest dissent from this conclusion on the part of a minority.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

As is now widely appreciated, the most pressing problem in American higher education is that which concerns the future place and character of the college. At Columbia University no uncertainty prevails on these points, but we have greatly feared that, without adequate physical provision for it, our own College might easily suffer in prestige and usefulness, surrounded as it is on every side by the evidences of a rapidly growing and

* Report for 1903-4, pp. 18-20.

developing University. The College, where ambitious youths are to gain the best inspiration of their lives, and where they are to be brought for a period of years under the gentle and ennobling influences of scholarship and culture, cannot be made of brick and stone alone. It will consist chiefly, in the future as in the past, of those intangible and unmeasured influences which constitute college spirit and college atmosphere. It will be, in the future as in the past, quite as much a social and a moral institution as an intellectual one. It will refine and broaden by contact as well as by instruction. Nevertheless, these influences must have a physical abode and a home which they can call their own.

It is just this which the gift of a College Hall will supply. Here the students of Columbia College, as distinguished from the students in the graduate and professional schools, will have the center of their activities and the seat of their future associations. The Hall will bear the name of that student of King's College in the early days who has, of all our alumni, made the deepest mark upon the governmental structure and political thought of the United States. That fact of itself will serve to keep alive the high traditions of public service and intellectual activity which mark the career, all too short, of Alexander Hamilton of the Class of 1777.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1907

The College Faculty has been entirely reorganized during the year in accordance with a definite principle of constitution. . . . The Faculty was reconstituted by assigning to it only those professors and adjunct professors who are chiefly or entirely engaged in giving collegiate instruction or who, for some personal or departmental reason, stand in close relation and sympathy with the College work. . . .

The College Faculty so reconstituted will now be able to give earnest and effective consideration to problems of discipline and instruction which are distinctively collegiate. It is hoped, there-

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 2-3.

fore, that the relations between the College and the secondary schools may still further improve, that the methods of teaching undergraduate students may be subjected to criticism and revision, that the mode of conducting the mid-year and final examinations may be improved, and that a much closer relationship may be established between members of the Faculty and members of the undergraduate body. The consideration of these and other similar matters has already been vigorously begun by the new Faculty, and there is every reason to hope that marked improvement in the College teaching and in the College spirit will result.

This reorganization of the College Faculty, following closely upon the adoption of the new program of studies, the erection of Hamilton Hall, and the introduction of dormitory life, completes the foundation upon which the Columbia College of the next generation is to build. Since 1880 the work of the College has been in a more or less uncertain and troubled condition owing to the manifold and complex development which has been going on not only in the College itself, but throughout the University. It has taken a quarter of a century to determine and define certain of the broader college problems and wider college relationships. These matters may now be regarded, for all practical purposes, as settled. The time has come, therefore, to undertake the intensive development of the college work and the close study of specifically college problems as they now present themselves. With a Faculty which is in reality a College Faculty, the means to this end are at hand.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

The matters to which attention was called [in a letter addressed to the Columbia College Faculty] were the relation of the College to the secondary schools, the unfortunate results which follow the invasion of the College by the lecture method of teaching, the administration of the stated mid-year and final

* Report for 1906-7, pp. 18-20.

examinations, the lack of adequate and frequent personal touch between undergraduate and teacher, the failure of the Faculty to inform itself sufficiently as to the content and method of the several courses prescribed by it for the baccalaureate degrees, and the tendency, through lack of departmental coöperation, to overload undergraduate students, particularly those in the Freshman and Sophomore years, with tasks that they cannot possibly perform. . . .

The College problem as it now presents itself is the very simple, and yet the very difficult, one of good teaching and of establishing close personal relationships between teachers and the taught. It is increasingly clear that better teaching will be had in Columbia College as a body of distinctively collegiate teachers is built up for the work of the Freshman and Sophomore years. The division of interest and of labor between undergraduate and graduate instruction is too great to enable many men to carry on both successfully. In some departments we have already been successful in developing strong undergraduate teachers of professorial rank. This policy should be pursued and continued whenever and wherever possible until the problem is satisfactorily solved. The system of advisers above referred to meets in what appears to be a practical and yet economical way the need of undergraduate students for personal contact with mature minds and characters. It differs in many points of detail from the policies pursued at other institutions to meet similar needs, but it has a common purpose with such policies.

The continued rapid growth of the College is a matter for sincere congratulation, as it indicates that the educational policies carefully thought out and persistently executed have commended themselves and are commending themselves to parents and teachers. The education which Columbia College offers may be said to be old-fashioned in the best sense of that word; nevertheless, it is modern in its spirit, its vigor and its wealth of opportunity.*

* Report for 1907-8, pp. 25-26, 28-29.

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

At more than one American college there is in process just now a vigorous searching of the mind and of the heart. The tendency of educational institutions to drift with the tide rather than to formulate definite policies and to labor constantly for their execution, is well illustrated by the way in which the American college has, in so many instances, permitted itself to be made the prey of every passing fancy and of every succeeding educational whim. Without knowing just whither they were going, the colleges have followed the trend of the time toward a slackening of discipline, toward an unwillingness or inability to accept responsibility for passing upon relative values, and toward that confusion between general training and vocational preparation which is for the college a painless but sure form of suicide. Both within the colleges and without them, so-called practical men have instituted a more or less genial reign of terror, so that it now takes some courage to admit that one would rather be liberally educated than not, or even to appeal from rule-of-thumb measurement to a table of logarithms.

Scholarship in America has received grave damage from its most inveterate enemy, which is early specialization. The student of English history who cannot express an intelligent or intelligible opinion as to the significance of the Stuart dynasty will take many pages and draw numerous maps and plans for the purpose of establishing by what particular window Charles I passed out of the Palace at Whitehall to the scaffold. The notion that this sort of information is important at any stage in a student's career is an illusion well worthy of the study of the academic pathologist. The assumption that such information can take the place of a real grasp upon ideas, tendencies and movements of opinion, is hardly worth discussing. The American college must be brought back on to a firmer basis than this if it is to survive and if it is to be worth working for.

Two of the separate colleges, Amherst and Hamilton, have

lately been making a thorough examination of their policies and aims, and they have come to important and highly commendable decisions in regard to them. The problem at Columbia College is much more complicated and much more difficult than at colleges such as these. Until thirty years ago, Columbia College was, to all intents and purposes, a separate college also. For a decade thereafter it was a college complicated with university affiliations. Since the reorganization of 1890 it has been a college in a university, with university obligations and with close university relationships. In taking on these new obligations, however, and in entering into these new relationships, Columbia College added to its older aim and purpose but did not displace them. The training of citizens who shall be educated gentlemen grows more important every year, not less so. No excellence in laying the foundation for future professional or technical training, and no amount of such activity, can take the place of doing what is after all the work for which a college primarily exists. While we have at Columbia now closely interwoven two or more years of college study with a later study of the law, of medicine, of engineering, of architecture and of teaching, we have none the less held fast to the older conception of college work. We need at Columbia more men, not fewer, who pursue a college course with no vocational aim in view, but who wish to furnish the mind for enjoyment, for happiness and for worth in later years. The institution of a degree with honors on the recommendation of the Faculty of Columbia College has already been of valuable assistance to the College. The plan, while yet new, is reported to be working well, and it has served as a distinct stimulus to scholarship and as a clear call to the stronger pursuit of those studies which still claim for themselves the proud name of liberal.

It is probably not possible to ascertain what proportion of American students go to college for social purposes only, what proportion go with a specific vocational end in view, and what proportion go for the purpose of becoming liberally educated

gentlemen. It is highly probable, however, that the class last named is not now very large; but the country will suffer severely if this class does not grow constantly larger and more important. At Columbia we need to strengthen, in all possible ways and by such supplementary legislation as may from time to time be necessary, the college course in the liberal arts and sciences which leads to the traditional degree of Bachelor of Arts.

With the personal changes that time has brought in its train, we have already lost too many of our old so-called culture courses, which are remembered with satisfaction and delight by many of the older graduates of Columbia College. The course in which, under the guise of offering an introduction to the study of Goethe, Professor Boyesen gave a critical survey of modern European literature; the truly great courses in which Professor Burgess traced and interpreted the constitutional history of Europe and of the United States; the course in which Professor Richmond Mayo-Smith examined and made plain the economic basis of the modern state, are illustrations of a kind of teaching which has now almost ceased to exist. If the college is to regain its hold and to accomplish its purpose, it must reinstitute and multiply courses of interpretation such as these. Information may be had for the asking, but a scholar's interpretation of information is a rare and precious thing.

The habit of conveying information to college students by means of lectures is wholly deplorable. It is not only a waste of time, since the printed page would be far better than the spoken word, but it leads to unfortunate and undesirable intellectual habits on the part of the student. The true function of the academic lecture — and its only justification, since the discovery of the art of printing — is to interpret and not simply to inform. By means of prescribed reading and by the aid of a printed syllabus, the college student should be directed to the facts of a given department of knowledge. By the lecture and by discussion he should be led to an understanding of these facts, to a capacity to estimate them at their true worth and value, and to a sense of

proportion in his judgments of them. The best type of college teacher is careful, at the opening of each new course of instruction, to devote at least one or two exercises to an indication of the scope, the method and the purpose of the course and its relation to other courses, both those which have preceded it and those which may follow. The student who sets out upon a new voyage of discovery in letters, in science or in philosophy, is surely entitled to a map of the ground to be traversed that is in its way at least as complete and as helpful as a navigator's chart. The notion that students may best be left to find out all these things for themselves is not an evidence of good teaching, but of obtuseness.

One important obstacle to the improvement of college teaching is the tradition which has grown up, here and elsewhere, that the classroom work of college teachers should not be supervised or inspected. It is now usual to leave a poor teacher alone with his poverty. In the old days, and in one or two departments until very recently, it was the custom for the senior officer to familiarize itself with the work of his associates, particularly those of junior rank, by personal visits to the classroom. In this way he gained accurate information regarding the teaching skill and the classroom methods in use in the department for which he was in a large measure responsible. He was not left helpless before the claims of the teacher and the conflicting criticisms of the students. We need more of this supervision and inspection in college teaching. Under our present form of academic organization, perhaps the best body to undertake it, or to cause it to be undertaken, is the Committee on Instruction of the College Faculty.

There is, unfortunately, no public opinion, either within a university or in the community at large, which will sustain the displacement of a teacher in school or in college simply because he cannot teach. If he is a person of good moral character, of reasonable industry and of inoffensive personality, his place is perfectly secure no matter what havoc he may make in the classroom. It is this inequitable security of tenure, the like of which

is not to be found in any other calling, that attracts to the teaching profession and holds in it, despite its modest pecuniary rewards, so much mediocrity. This is not so much a condition to be criticized as a fact to be reckoned with. Unless an ineffective teacher can be roused or stimulated into relative effectiveness, it will probably be necessary to subject one generation of college students after another to his incapacity until death or the age of academic retirement comes to their relief.

Side by side with the steady improvement of college teaching, through supervision, through stimulus and through more critical care in making original appointments, there must go the increase of personal attention to the individual student. This problem Columbia College is fortunate in having solved, at least to a very large extent.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

The task of the American college is, or should be, reasonably definite and well understood. It is to take the youth at about the age when in ancient Rome he put on the *toga virilis* and offer him for three or four years opportunity for carefully directed and supervised study in some part or in many parts of the field of liberal arts and sciences. The purpose of this carefully supervised and directed training is to give him the benefit of his rich human inheritance, so far as that may be practicable, and thereby better to prepare him for such specific task as may await him in the years of mature life. Deprived of this rich inheritance, the youth must of necessity be correspondingly impoverished and put under the necessity of making most strenuous efforts in later years to make good the loss which he has had to suffer. The old days when the substance of this inheritance could be transmitted through a few carefully chosen and prescribed subjects of study have gone forever. They have gone, not because those studies were not excellent in their time and adequate to the needs of that time, but rather because times have changed and the human

* Report for 1911-12, pp. 23-28.

inheritance has taken on a more many-sided and richer form than it once was known to have. Nature and its study have offered new and splendid vistas to both knowledge and imagination. The creative arts have unfolded themselves in striking fashion for a century past as educational instrumentalities of highest value. The structure and underlying principles of the social and political order, first examined and interpreted in classic fashion by Aristotle, have now taken on many new forms and guises, each with its own appeal and its own capacity for usefulness. It is for reasons such as these that the task of the college faculty has become more difficult than ever before, since it must, within a very limited time and for youths from all sorts and conditions of home, family and school background and environment, offer that opportunity to understand and to grasp the rich human inheritance which it is the first business of the college to transmit.*

BASIC AND LIBERAL NATURE

NOVEMBER 1, 1929

The contemporary literature relative to the American college, its status and its problems, contains multiplying evidence of the fact that what President Barnard and Professor Burgess saw to be true in 1880, quite fifty years ago, has now made itself evident to large numbers of educational administrators and college teachers. It was their contention, quickly accepted by Columbia and made a fundamental principle of its development, that if the undergraduate student was in the later years of his college course to be permitted freely to choose studies that he would pursue, there could be no good reason why he should not be permitted to choose those studies that were fundamental and introductory to any future professional course of study upon which he proposed to enter. If the college Senior was to have opportunity to study zoölogy, what possible reason could be given why he who desired to become a student of medicine should not find his way

* Report for 1932-33, pp. 28-29.

to the laboratory and museum of comparative anatomy? The result was the introduction of the so-called combined college and professional school course, which has since its introduction played a very large part in bringing about a reconstitution and reconstruction of the program of study in the American college. The seeds of the junior college movement were to be found in the Columbia combined course, and that junior college movement will in time prove itself, is indeed already proving itself, capable of meeting a very real need. Hard upon its heels comes the movement to organize and identify the junior high school and that, too, has a useful future beyond any question.

All this means that there is a complete breaking up of the old formal division of the process of instruction into an elementary, a secondary and a higher period of study. Under present-day conditions there is need of smaller and differently organized units, and the junior college together with the junior high school furnishes these. The elementary school course remains wasteful in the extreme. Much more and much better could be accomplished if elementary school teaching were treated as the very simple process which it is, and not analyzed and re-analyzed into a hundred hypothetical constituent elements, all of which perplex the teacher and mystify the child. Herbart has many sins to answer for. An elementary school program in arithmetic which requires a full year to teach all that is involved in the numbers from one to ten inclusive, is something considerably below the plane of a joke.

Through all these changes, chances and tribulations Columbia College has fortunately kept its head. The Faculty, under the inspiring and sagacious leadership of Dean Hawkes, attacks problem after problem with openmindedness, keen insight into the needs and ambitions of youth and the finest possible spirit of coöperation. The Report of the Dean of Columbia College for the past year contains a most interesting statement and interpretation of the policies of the Faculty and of the success which is attending them. Every word of that Report should be read and

pondered not only by college teachers, but by thoughtful parents who are really concerned for the sound education of their children. The Warden of St. Stephen's College in his Report discusses other aspects of this same topic in a manner that is full of suggestion. Plainly the American college is on the march, and according as it is conscious of its destination and of the best means to reach that destination, will its record of usefulness be written in the years just ahead of us.

It is a matter of interesting speculation as to what may be the future, a generation from now, of those separate colleges which, because of their separateness, are not members of the educational system of a university. It is likely that the example of St. Stephen's College will be followed in not a few cases as the years pass, and the separate college while retaining the advantage of its separateness will gain the enormous advantage of university membership by becoming incorporated in the educational system of a neighboring university of high rank. The junior college should take care of an increasing proportion of those young men and young women who now press for admission to the Freshman Class of the American college each autumn. Thousands of these young men and young women may get in and from the junior college all the systematic instruction which they require and of which they can take full advantage. The rapidly multiplying opportunities for adult education will do the rest and will assist in keeping them intellectually alive and active throughout their entire lives.

After all these changes shall have taken place, however, there will still be room for a certain number of separate colleges going their own way and doing their own work in that happy and fortunate field which one may still describe as the Humanities. *Homo sum; humani nihil a me alienum puto*, said Terence. To realize this grateful maxim will be the continuing and the richly rewarded task of the separate college as it will be always a large part of the task of the university college.

The separate college, which understands its problem and its

place in the nation's system of higher education, will refrain from any attempt to build up within itself a scheme of graduate or university work. Any such policy of necessity involves, by reason of the large expenditure incurred, a weakening of the resources which should be unimpaired for truly undergraduate or college work. Moreover, true university opportunity is now offered in the United States in at least a dozen different and widely separated institutions. It is to one of these that the graduate of the separate college should turn if he or she desires to go forward in a career of scholarship. It is at these university centers that have been built up, or are building, the vast equipment of libraries, laboratories, and other aids to advanced study which are an absolute necessity to its proper conduct. Precisely the same reasons which took American college graduates who were looking forward to a career of scholarly endeavor to the German universities during the last third of the nineteenth century will take like-minded graduates of American colleges to either an American or a foreign university in this part of the twentieth century. Just as universities will differ among themselves in respect to what they have to offer in different fields of knowledge, so the universities as a whole will differ widely from those separate colleges which are giving closest, most devoted and most successful attention to their own very important and highly desirable business.

In order to think straight upon these subjects, it is essential to look carefully to one's terminology and nomenclature. There are many kinds and divisions of instruction and many kinds and divisions of training, but there is only one education. Professional instruction, vocational training and many other groups and classifications exist and rightly so; but they are something quite distinct from education, and education is something far deeper and broader and higher than any one of them, or than all of them taken together. Loose and unclear thinking has been promoted and multiplied by the careless and unscientific use of the word education, just as it has by the careless and unscientific use of the

word university. To get light upon present-day problems in education and to grasp their social, political and moral significance, it is essential that fundamental terms should be understood in their just and proper definitions and not permitted to drift into careless and uncritical use.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

The three undergraduate colleges of the University's educational system, Columbia College for men, Barnard College for women, and Bard College for men, are all moving steadily forward toward the accomplishment of their common ideal, each in its own way and each inspired by the spirit of progress. The faculties of these undergraduate colleges are under no compulsion to imitate each other's projects and plans, although they are in so close contact that each is naturally interested in and influenced by the work of the others. The attempt is making in each one of these colleges not only to preserve, but to strengthen, the ideal of a liberal education and to seek in the subject matter of today's instruction such new material as can be found to take the place of that from which the public mind has so largely — and in many cases most unfortunately — turned away. For example, the decline of any real knowledge of the literature, the philosophy, and the institutional life of the ancient Greeks and Romans who laid the foundations for everything which we ourselves have been and are, is unfortunate in high degree. Attempts are now making to provide at least some knowledge of the great achievements of those ancient peoples in other ways than by a study of their languages, which, though usually classed as dead, pulse with the life of the immortal messages which they bring to this generation and which they will continue to bring to generations yet to come. The confusion between education and instruction for some definite end persists, and perhaps even grows. While it lasts, the cause of true education will be confronted by all those difficulties which gain-seeking habitually puts in the path of the

* Report for 1928-29, pp. 40-43.

highest type of intellectual and moral life and service. Fortunately, the lecture system is on the decline. As a mode of conveying information which can and should be had from the printed page, the lecture is grotesquely out of date. Its proper place, and a most important one, is that of interpretation and exposition of knowledge and of facts which are presumed to be in possession of the lecturer's auditors. The closer contact of mind with mind through small groups brought together for the discussion and interpretation of that which all have read or studied is of the highest value. Above all, the contact of eager and ambitious youth with outstanding personalities is that experience which brings an inspiration never to be forgotten and never to be lost.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

The Report of the Dean of Columbia College sets forth in illuminating fashion the present aspect of the commanding problems which arise from the needs and opportunities of the present-day undergraduate student. These problems take on a form which is more definite and more pressing when the undergraduate college finds itself, as does Columbia College, included in a university's educational system. The college which is geographically and administratively separate from any university must face substantially like problems, but it is not necessarily made conscious of them in the same insistent fashion. The undergraduate student in Columbia College finds himself contemplating day by day the activities and ambitions of the University students who surround him, whether these be professional or other, and it is not to be wondered at that he quickly begins to relate his own problems and interests to some of theirs. An increasing number of undergraduates come to college having already chosen, on the surface at least, the career to which they wish to devote themselves in after life. It appears to be the fact that some 60 percent of the membership of each entering class in Columbia College

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 45-46.

have already determined upon the profession or occupation which they wish to follow. What this means is that the problem before the College Faculty is that of doing all in its power to make sure that the undergraduate program of study shall be such as to make it quite certain that no student, whatever his plans for the future may be, is either compelled or permitted to lose the opportunity to gain the elements of a truly liberal education and to lay the solid foundations upon which his reading and thought in after life may rest.

The intermingling of liberal education with prevocational and vocational instruction raises many difficulties with which the Faculty of Columbia College has dealt with very great insight and skill. The tendency to lay emphasis upon vocational preparation is the greatest enemy which liberal education has to face. For the apostle of purely vocational preparation, there is no time for learning anything which cannot be immediately and directly applied in vocational use. This, of course, makes education quite impossible, and turns the future adult citizen into a machine-made product, with none but a purely material end in view. Under such circumstances, it is not to be wondered at that the profit-motive continues to play so large a part in American life. The German system of separating liberal education and prevocational training during the secondary school period has great advantages, but in the United States the intermingling of the two has become far more the rule than the exception. It is the function and the opportunity of adult education to endeavor to make good over many years of later life what may have been lost by those who found themselves under insistent pressure to follow a course of vocational instruction, with little or no opportunity for education.

If the nation is to maintain its ideals and to follow a steadily mounting path of progress, of social service and of intellectual competence, it must have among its population the largest possible number of liberally educated men and women. These are men and women who have been taught to understand the origins

and the history of the forces which make modern civilization, who have been introduced to the great masterpieces of literature, of the fine arts, of philosophy and of science, and who have been taught to think and to keep an open mind for new truth and new intellectual adventure. Such men and women alone can make a nation truly great and worthily confident of a permanent place among the leaders of civilization during the centuries that lie ahead of us.

Vocational preparation is all well enough in its way, but it is always and everywhere of secondary importance. There is little use in a man being able to earn his living if he is not a man at all, but only a trained animal. Surely conditions are pretty serious when a distinguished man of science can write these words:

In spite of the immense sums of money expended on the education of the children and the young people of the United States, the intellectual élite does not seem to have increased. . . . In modern civilization, the individual is characterized chiefly by a fairly great activity, entirely directed toward the practical side of life, by much ignorance, by a certain shrewdness, and by a kind of mental weakness which leaves him under the influence of the environment wherein he happens to be placed. It appears that intelligence itself gives way when character weakens. . . . Modern civilization seems to be incapable of producing people endowed with imagination, intelligence, and courage. In practically every country there is a decrease in the intellectual and moral calibre of those who carry the responsibility of public affairs.* †

USEFULNESS OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

Such a prospect [the development of Columbia College as a resident junior college] must make strong appeal to the imagination of those who, looking back upon the old College of thirty or forty years ago, wish the Columbia College of the future to represent everything that was good in the college life and work

* Alexis Carrel, *Man, the Unknown* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1935), pp. 20-21.

† Report for 1934-35, pp. 26-28.

of the last generation and to add thereto everything that is helpful and uplifting in the life of the present. During the years of rapid University development, Columbia College has been of necessity more or less the creature of circumstances. While endeavoring to pursue its own college policy, it has been compelled at the same time to endeavor to serve the needs of a large and many-sided university. May it not be that the time has now come when a junior college will take excellent and sufficient care of these needs and so set Columbia College free to resume without farther interruption or hindrance the natural lines of its own collegiate development?

The step now suggested could be taken without expense and by a mere stroke of the pen, since it is wholly a matter of reclassifying and regrouping students who are already in residence according to the degrees for which they are candidates. Columbia College students of the type first referred to are all candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Columbia College students of the second type, who would then become students in the junior college, are all candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Science in one or another of its various forms.

The suggestion for the establishment of a junior college is offered as an easy and practical way of meeting the very real difficulties that have arisen in Columbia College owing to its size and the diversity of interest and aim among its students, as well as a means of sharpening and defining the place of the historic Columbia College in the Columbia University of today and tomorrow.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

The Dean of Columbia College, in discussing different types of college student, speaks in his report of those who regard Columbia less as an Alma Mater than as a *Pater Efficiens*. This is a witty and illuminating distinction. It puts into a compact phrase the essence of contemporary educational debate. Not all the pa-

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 17-18.

tient measurements of laboratory-trained schoolmasters or the insistent demand that a child be taught useful industry before he is given a chance to learn for what end he should be industrious, can bridge the wide gulf which separates education from special training. Those who deem themselves specially trained but who are conscious of having never been educated are not unnaturally eager to contend that no distinction between education and special training exists. The common sense of men has, however, settled this question long ago, and that settlement is in no wise shaken by irrelevant experiments which, through attempted measurement of the non-material, conclude that no one is, ever was, or ever can be educated but only given special and specific training. The proper point at which special training of any kind should begin is when a reasonable foundation of education has been laid. Under present-day conditions, for the great mass of the population this point will be found somewhere after the close of the elementary school period, and as economic and social conditions improve it will and should be pushed on well into the period of secondary school work. For those who are able to take advantage of the opportunities which the American college offers, this point is to be found not earlier than the close of the second year of undergraduate study. The modicum of training and knowledge which a youth can gain by that time is a modest enough foundation for professional study. These studies are themselves quite capable of being given a large educational significance, but too often they are carried on in so narrowly vocational a spirit that this possibility is lost. The many-sided metropolitan university of the twentieth century will make provision for students of all types and kinds, and it will treat all alike with fairness and generosity; but it must not on that account either overlook, or assist in breaking down, the elementary principles of a sound educational philosophy. The more men and women who are being trained up to twenty or twenty-one years of age without any reference whatever to a particular vocation or occupation, the better for the citizenship, the intelligence, and the

moral and spiritual life of the nation. It is but repeating what has often been said to point out that what modern civilization needs is not narrow men, but broad men sharpened to a point. Breadth is the result of good education; sharpened to a point is the result of sound special training. The broad man sharpened to a point has been given both an education and a special training. In education, as in the family, Alma Mater comes first and *Pater Efficiens* exerts his influence later on.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

The development of the junior college which has gone on so rapidly throughout the country in recent years, is the direct outcome of that theory of organization of higher education which, made familiar by the writing and teaching of Andrew D. White, Frederick A. P. Barnard and Professor John W. Burgess, underlay the plan of organization adopted for Columbia University in 1890. When that plan was drafted the fact was clearly in mind that in the United States the field of higher education is divided among three parts or types of institution, whereas on the continent of Europe, with its long and useful experience to guide it, these divisions and institutions are but two in number. In the United States the secondary school, the college and the university properly so-called, occupy the territory which, on the Continent of Europe, is divided between the *lycée* or *Gymnasium* on the one hand and the university on the other. As so often happens in following the natural history of human undertakings, there is a real, if unconscious and even unsuspected, reason for almost every type of institutional development. On the Continent of Europe the two-fold division of higher education corresponds to certain psychological and social facts, while in the United States the three-fold division rests more largely on an economic foundation as well as on the accidents of the early stages of an historical development. It was recognition of these facts which led to the establishment of the so-called Columbia plan of the com-

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 10-12.

bined college and university course, which accepts the fact that there is a natural break or transition in the intellectual life of the normal student at about the end of the second or sophomore year of college instruction. In the Annual Report for 1902 (pp. 29-49) and in that for 1903 (pp. 23-31) these questions were examined at some length. As a result, a lively discussion of these matters in all their aspects followed and continued for several years. The upshot of it all was to strengthen the conviction that the three-fold division as it exists in the United States corresponds fairly well to national economic, social and intellectual conditions, but that to be most effective it must in some way recognize and make place for that distinction or transition which the European system recognizes between the *lycée* or the *Gymnasium* on the one hand and the University on the other. The junior college when brought into existence, either separately or as an outgrowth of an established secondary school, represents the attempt to satisfy the need which European institutions of higher learning recognize and meet in the way described.

What shall become of those who satisfactorily complete the junior college course? For many junior college students, perhaps for most, the formal instruction there given is all that they will require as preparation for life. It would doubtless be to the public advantage if the major portion of the junior college constituency were to pass directly into gainful occupation and then use the multiplying facilities for adult education to keep alive their intellectual life and to broaden and deepen their intellectual interest while engaging in active work. Another portion of this group would certainly wish to enter upon the later years of a college course or to take up professional study. If the junior college has done its work well, students should be ready, on finishing its course, to become acceptable students of Architecture, Agriculture, Business, Education, Engineering, Journalism, Library Service or Pharmacy. Whether they might be admitted to full University status as students of Law or Medicine would depend in part upon statutory restrictions and in part upon institutional

conditions and requirements. A certain number, it is hoped, would desire to go forward to the completion of a college course in the liberal arts and sciences, and thereby lay the foundation for a life of the largest measure of intellectual satisfaction and enjoyment, or even for a scholar's career.

It so happens that at Columbia during the past twenty years the work of University Extension has so developed as to suggest and almost to compel the organization of junior colleges at certain of the larger centers of population which University Extension serves. The question is now asked whether the time has not come formally to bring such junior colleges into existence and through University Extension to recognize them as part of the University's educational system, conforming to fixed University standards and responding to University direction and control. To this question an affirmative answer may quickly be given if it be understood that these undertakings will in no wise become a charge upon the general income of the University corporation and that they will conform to the University standards of scholarly excellence and achievement. It is quite within the bounds of possibility that during the next generation both Columbia University and other universities that have the inestimable advantage of an urban situation may find themselves surrounded by a whole group of junior colleges that have sprung up as the result of their several influences and inspirations. The administration and oversight of a group of such junior colleges would present no serious difficulties and their teaching positions would naturally be filled, chiefly at least, by men and women trained at the university under whose auspices they had been brought into being.

Junior colleges, wherever they are, will do well to seek university affiliation. They would be greatly strengthened thereby and lines of influence and interdependence would be laid down and developed that might easily come to play a large part in the development of the nation's general educational system. Plans and organizations for adult education would connect themselves

with junior colleges and with the universities to which those junior colleges looked for oversight and direction, and the whole vast movement of arousing, stimulating and instructing the public intelligence and of guiding the public mind to habits of right thinking and generous feeling would be thereby greatly advanced.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

The action taken during the year on the initiative of St. Stephen's College by which that admirable institution was incorporated in the University's educational system, and the organization in the Borough of Brooklyn of Seth Low Junior College, mark another, a natural and a long step forward in the development of Columbia University, and likewise in that of the organization of higher education in the United States. Long ago Jeremy Taylor, treading perhaps on debatable ground, remarked upon the involution or comprehension of the Presbyter within the Episcopus. Just so there are within the University many seeds of plants of different type and color which only await care and proper nourishment in order to produce growths that will shortly blossom forth and bear fine fruit. The tradition, the authority and the inspiration of a great university are too important and too rich to suffer confinement within conventional or narrow bounds. The highest ideal of them all is public service, and that service is best rendered when an historic university holds itself ready to offer its tested standards of excellence, its companionship and its scholarly counsel to various types of institution that are suited for university membership, or when it produces these out of its own soul and body. The age-old problem of the One and the Many, first illumined by Pythagoras and his followers, lies at the bottom of every form of organization which affects human beings. To give the individual the benefit which attaches to membership in a group without subordinating his personality and his interests to group preferences and to group

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 30-33.

demands, as manifested formally or informally by majority vote, remains the supreme task of those who have to do with the building, the repair, the protection or the embellishment of any one of the institutions of civilization. Whether the individual receives his due and is offered his just opportunity depends not in the least upon the size of the group to which he belongs, but upon the manner in which as a member of that group he is recognized, encouraged and inspired.

It is of high importance to prevent the spirit of mass production, which has found its way into the control of pretty much all the processes of industry with resultant economic advantage and aesthetic loss, from similarly dominating any part of the field of education, elementary, secondary, or higher. The individual is too precious to be sacrificed to the mass. He should be surrounded by those opportunities for diversity of interest, of occupation and of expression that will invite and encourage him to make the best possible use of his talents. Thus treated, the individual will be enriched by his mass membership and given sources of power and enjoyment which he could not possibly gain alone. For some years past it has been necessary for Columbia College to limit the number of those granted admission each year. Literally hundreds of youths, many of them most deserving and capable, are turned from the College doors because the limit has been reached of the number which can be cared for in one undergraduate organization with full regard to their individual needs, capacities and tastes. Shall the influence and the intellectual resources of Columbia University, therefore, be limited to the few hundred undergraduates who may each year be enrolled in Columbia College? That would be a sorry confession of impotence to meet and to deal with a very real and a very pressing human situation.

A college like St. Stephen's, limited to some two hundred or two hundred and fifty undergraduates, delightfully placed in the countryside on the banks of the Hudson River, and not too far removed for frequent visits to Morningside Heights and for per-

sonal contacts between the teaching scholars in the country and the teaching scholars in the town, is a rich and fine addition to the University's resources for solving the problems of undergraduate instruction and undergraduate life. Especially is this the case when, as is true of St. Stephen's College, the atmosphere is one of earnest religious faith and solemn religious observance. The standards of admission and graduation will be the same at St. Stephen's College as at Columbia College, while the program of study there will be that which the teaching scholars of St. Stephen's prefer and support as the surest instrument of the character-building and mind-forming processes for which the responsibility is placed in their experienced and trustworthy hands. That the association of country college and urban university will be helpful to both and to the nation which both aim to serve, is the confident belief.

The Junior College problem is similar but different. In the Annual Report for 1927 (pp. 30-33), the relation between the university and the junior college was pointed out and the facts assembled, which show that the junior college had its intellectual origin in those studies, reflections and policies which led to the organization of modern Columbia University between 1880 and 1890. The Junior College will, in the first place, take off some of the pressure to enter Columbia College or St. Stephen's College, and it will also serve in the case of most of its students to give that measure of general academic education in advance of the secondary school, which can suitably and profitably be taken before entering upon the active work of the world. The Junior College is certain to increase and multiply, for to use again Jeremy Taylor's figure, it is involved or comprehended in the idea of a modern university serving a democratic state.

There are certain obvious centers about which developments of this type may be expected to manifest themselves in the immediate future. Morningside Heights, Philadelphia, Boston-Cambridge, Pittsburgh, Chicago, St. Louis, St. Paul-Minneapolis, and Berkeley, in particular, are marked out as natural geographic

and intellectual centers for the development of higher education in manifold form and in various types under the guidance, the stimulus and the scholarly assurance of a notable university.

There is not the least reason why a university should be confined to a single school of law, of medicine, or of engineering. Professional schools, too, may differ in type or in method provided only they all rest upon the same standard of excellence and be animated by the same spirit. To make sure of this is the responsibility of the university.

In addition to the multiplication of the undergraduate college and the institution and multiplication of the Junior College, another interesting development is touched upon in the report of the Dean of the Graduate Faculties. Dean Woodbridge points out that our graduate schools are resorted to by two very different types of person: those who come with full intention and every qualification to go forward to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and to submit themselves to the most rigorous and definite training therefor, and those who come to enjoy the satisfaction and the privilege of a year or more of University residence before leaving the groves of academe forever. It is, as the Dean points out, important to differentiate between these two types of graduate student, and it is equally important that the needs of each be provided for and met. In the German universities of two generations ago this same situation existed. A mere handful of those who were enrolled at the University of Berlin, for example, went forward to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. These enrolled themselves in seminars and privately given courses of instruction, and assumed heavy burdens in library or in laboratory. A great majority of the students, on the other hand, had no such intention. They enjoyed to the full the public courses of lectures offered by those who were then among the world's greatest scholars. A similar situation existed in Paris at the Sorbonne. It would be difficult to overestimate the value to our democracy from a growing host of young men and young women who should, following college graduation, spend a year

or more in university residence, thinking little or nothing of candidacy for a degree. The great scholars and men of science whom they might meet and hear, the books which they would have opportunity to read, the laboratories in which they would have chance to work, the associations which they might quickly form, and the memories which they would carry away, would constitute an addition to the intellectual resources and the cultivation of the American people which can neither be weighed nor measured. Lord Halifax quaintly remarks that "The angry Buzz of a Multitude is one of the bloodiest Noises in the World." * It is important in high degree that this buzz of the multitude be guided, so far as may be, into coherent and uplifting speech by the influence and the example of those men and women who, while not themselves highly trained scholars in any field, are yet so familiar with scholarship, so imbued with its spirit and so respectful of it that they may constitute an effective leaven in the dull lump of mass mediocrity.†

THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN

OCTOBER 3, 1904

The weakness in the program generally offered by women's colleges is that it follows closely or even slavishly that usual at colleges for men, and so fails to meet the peculiar needs that many college women feel. The late General Francis A. Walker pointed out years ago how largely colleges for women had missed their opportunities in this respect. In any revision of the program of studies at Barnard College, it will be kept in mind not only that a sound standard is to be maintained in letters and in science, but also that Barnard College is a college for women, not for men. The list of electives offered should contain carefully chosen courses in domestic science, domestic art, sanitary chemistry, the fine arts, and related subjects that are especially adapted to the training of college women. All of this instruction exists in the

* *The Works of Lord Halifax* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1912), p. 219.

† Report for 1927-28, pp. 22-26.

University and could readily be included in the Barnard College program at very moderate cost.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

The University as a whole is proud of Barnard College and of the admirable provision which it makes for the college education of women. The standards of admission and of graduation are identical with those of Columbia College; the program of studies is as rich and as satisfactory as the financial condition of the corporation will permit; the officers of instruction are accomplished and devoted. When these facts are clearly stated and recognized, it can hardly be doubted that the friends of the collegiate education of women will give without delay to Barnard College that new support which it must have unless it is to fall back steadily in educational effectiveness. The making of bricks without straw cannot go on indefinitely.†

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

In the Annual Report for 1879 President Barnard convulsed the educational world of that day by strongly advocating the admission of women as undergraduates in Columbia College. The opening sentence of his discussion was this:

The condition of the College is now such as to justify the suggestion of the question whether its advantages should not be open to young women as well as to young men.

President Barnard closed his notable treatment of this subject with these words:

Whatever may be the fate of the present suggestion, the undersigned cannot permit himself to doubt that the time will yet come when the propriety and the wisdom of this measure will be fully recognized; and as he believes that Columbia College is destined in the coming centuries to become so comprehensive in the scope of her teaching as to be able to furnish to inquirers after truth the instruction they may desire in whatever branch of human knowledge,

* Report for 1903-4, pp. 41-42.

† Report for 1909-10, pp. 49-50.

he believes also that she will become so catholic in her liberality as to open widely her doors to all inquirers, without distinction either of class or sex.

In the Annual Reports for 1880, 1881, and 1882, President Barnard returned to the subject of the higher education of women and discussed it from every point of view with great cogency and with illustrations drawn from the educational experience of various lands.

When President Barnard brought forward this highly contentious proposal, he was not a young and radical educational reformer, but a ripe scholar and highly seasoned educational administrator who had reached his seventieth year. What has now become Radcliffe College was founded one year before President Barnard's recommendation was made; Wellesley and Smith Colleges were then four years old; Girton College, six; Vassar College, fourteen; and Bryn Mawr College was on its way to establishment.

As a result of this proposal, and the violent controversy which ensued, a collegiate course for women was established in 1883, and a college for women bearing President Barnard's name came into existence in 1889 and was almost at once completely incorporated in the educational system of Columbia.

Today the old controversy is almost forgotten, for in the intervening years Columbia College, with its associated professional schools, has become the closely knit and well-organized Columbia University, and its women students are numbered literally by the thousand. Much of the feeling aroused in antagonism to President Barnard's original recommendation was due to the fact that Columbia was then in a transition period, and that he had fixed his mind on the admission of women as undergraduates, rather than on the admission of women to the full privileges of the college and university instruction given in Columbia's name. The solution of the problem that has been worked out in the course of years has proved a very satisfactory one.*

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 12-14.

X

COLLEGE ADMISSION

THE FIT AND THE UNFIT

OCTOBER 6, 1902

As the public high schools multiply and strengthen they will tend more and more to give the instruction now offered in the first year, or first two years, of the college course. In so far, they will become local colleges, but without the characteristic or the attractiveness of student residence. Furthermore, the time would sooner come when colleges, excellent in ideals and rich in teaching power but without the resources necessary to carry on a four-years' course of instruction satisfactorily, will raise the requirements for admission to a proper point and then concentrate all their strength upon a thoroughly sound course of two years leading to the bachelor's degree. More depends upon the strict enforcement of proper standards of admission to college than is generally believed; that is at present the weakest point in college administration. The general standard of college education in the United States would be strengthened more if the weaker colleges would fix and rigidly enforce proper entrance requirements and concentrate all their money and energies upon two years of thorough college work than if they continue to spread a college course over four years with admission secured on nominal terms or on none at all.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

From its first establishment until about forty years ago the American college was universally looked upon as an institution for the discipline and instruction of young men who had successfully completed the work of the lower schools and were able to meet the tests set for college admission. Following the Civil War

* Report for 1901-2, p. 47.

and growing out of the rapidly increasing wealth of the country and the development of a more or less leisure class, the notion began to gain ground that the college was an agreeable place in which to finish the formalities of a systematic education without troubling much about intellectual discipline or scholarship, to participate in manly exercise and outdoor sports, and to make a useful circle of friends who might be helpful in social or in business ways in after years. This curious notion rapidly gained ground, particularly among those who sought for their sons social advantages and associations which they themselves had not always possessed. Little by little the serious business of the college was pushed into the background by such as entertained this notion, and the college came to stand in their eyes as a most inviting and satisfactory form of country club, with incidental facilities for reading and study. The rapid spread of the elective system of college studies, which took place a generation ago, aided the growth of this notion. Young men were no longer thought to be ignorant if they left college without any serious and sustained discipline, or without any genuine grasp upon the underlying facts and the controlling history of civilization, provided they had put their names down for a sufficient number of so-called courses of study, however unrelated, however superficial, and however insignificant. The result has been that side by side with an earnest, devoted and high-minded body of young college graduates, there has gone out into American life a very substantial group of those who have gained college degrees, but who are, to all intents and purposes, as undisciplined and uneducated both in mind and in morals as if they had enjoyed no advantages whatsoever. To be sure, the members of this group are relatively small in number, but they often gain an influence and a notoriety out of all proportion to their size. The vast army of American college students is made up of young men and young women of the very best type, no small proportion of them self-supporting, who are bent upon making every hour of college residence count.

It is too bad that the country club notion should have obtained lodgment and exerted influence for so long, and particularly that it should have been permitted to play so prominent a part in the popular notion of college life and work. Shiftless and ambitious parents are really responsible for the rise of this notion and for its continuance among us. It cannot be too speedily displaced, wherever it exists, by the more worthy and more honorable conception of a college.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

The object of all forms of entrance examination and admission test is to make sure that the time and effort of the university are profitably, not wastefully expended. The odd and confused notion that all those who have satisfactorily completed the minimum requirements of one stage of educational organization are thereby entitled as of right to be received in an institution of next higher grade, is responsible for no small part of the educational waste, mental, moral and financial, that is now going on all over this land. The idea that a system of this kind is democratic is quite grotesque, for it contradicts true democracy in the interest of a crude and flattening uniformitarianism which, if permitted, would end democracy's life.

The pressure upon Columbia University in almost every part is so great that it requires severe labor, broad outlook and great discretion to decide each year between the army of those who may be received and the army of those who, whatever their zeal, their high purpose or their ambition, must be asked to look elsewhere. This task of selection cannot be made mechanically or on any bureaucratic, arithmetical system. It must be made with human insight, human understanding and human sympathy, and it must be effected without regard to race, religion or any other attribute save only mental, moral and physical capacity to profit to the full by what the University has to offer. It is a serious matter when, as in the case of Columbia University, there are some

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 18-19.

six thousand persons, drawn from every state in the Union and from foreign lands as well, who must be told each year that the limitations of the University's equipment and teaching staff are such that they cannot be received on Morningside Heights or at the Medical School. It is well understood that this decision often brings deep disappointment and pain. It is never made without regret, and that no error ever occurs, it would be quite too much to assume. It is assumed, however, and the public must so assume, that the discrimination is exercised in most painstaking fashion and in the utmost good faith.

That this is by no means a new question is made evident by an incident in the history of the Corporation which is perhaps quite unknown. On February 6, 1809, a report was submitted to the Trustees of Columbia College, signed by Rufus King as Chairman but written by Provost Mason, which had to do with the course of study and methods of discipline then in vogue at Columbia College, which at that time certainly enrolled less than one hundred students. The report contains this passage: *

Your Committee cannot, for a moment, suppose that it is the intention of the board to try that most fruitless and mischievous experiment — the experiment of educating either the naturally stupid, or the incurably idle. A volume could not display the magnitude of the injuries inflicted upon letters, upon religion, upon morals, upon social prosperity, under every form, through the protection granted to incapacity and sloth, by a timid indulgence or a chimerical hope. It is therefore indispensable that the public should see and youth themselves feel, that future students must both have faculties to cultivate, and industry to labour in their cultivation, or that Columbia College will be no place for them.

The ground upon which Provost Mason stood was sound then and it is sound now. The point might be labored indefinitely, but it need not be.

Hand in hand with the duty of discriminating, not so much between the fit and the unfit as between the more fit and the less

* From the *Memoirs of John M. Mason, D.D., S.T.D.*, by Jacob Van Vechten (New York, 1856), p. 340.

fit, is the duty of providing individual concern and attention for the serious student, no matter how large his number may be. Fortunately, it is universal testimony that this individual attention is characteristic of Columbia University in all its parts. At Columbia University it is the constant effort both of teachers and administrative officers to make sure that no individual student lacks that personal contact, personal understanding and personal sympathy which count for so much in helping him to shape his intellectual and personal life. A hundred instances might be given of recent happenings which bear testimony in explicit fashion to the prevalence of this spirit of helpfulness at Columbia and to its appreciation by officers and students alike. No part of the whole educational process can be counted more valuable than this.

As schools, colleges and universities increase in enrollment, there is much loose and quite meaningless talk in the public press and elsewhere of mass production in education. There is no more mass production in a school of a thousand pupils with thirty teachers than in a school of thirty pupils with one teacher. Whether a student shall receive individual attention from his institution or his teachers has nothing whatever to do with the size of the institution in which he is enrolled. That institution may be very small or it may be very large, but whether the student receives individual attention is a matter of the spirit and the method of the institution, whatever its size. The old-fashioned, ungraded country school with the single teacher who was a powerful personality is becoming only a tradition but it was a school that had certain advantages of its own. There was the stimulus of constant, immediate, personal contact between teacher and taught, of the presence in one and the same room of pupils of different ages and stages of advancement, and of something very genuine in the way of community interest and spirit. Whether all these characteristics can continue to exist in institutions which attract or must care for large numbers, is in chief measure dependent upon the ideals and the spirit of the institution itself. Fortunately, Columbia University in its every part so addresses

itself to its task as to make mass production in education an impossibility.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

Those who have best knowledge and fullest information regarding the capacity of a student to go forward with profit and distinction are those with whom he has already been associated and under whose direction he has been in his previous school or college life. In the case of applicants for admission to the college, principals and headmasters of secondary schools, and in the case of applicants for admission to the university, presidents and members of faculties of colleges and scientific schools, may well be appealed to, not only for advice but for suggestion as to which of their students are, in their judgment, most deserving of consideration when choice has to be made or when awards are to be granted in the form either of academic honors or financial assistance. Coöperation between the principals and headmasters on the one hand and the dean and faculties of the undergraduate colleges on the other, and coöperation between the presidents and faculties of colleges on the one hand and the deans and faculties of the graduate and professional schools of the University on the other, might easily be established in ways which would make increasingly certain that those admitted to farther study on Morningside Heights or at the Medical Center are those who, in the judgment of their earlier teachers, are best fitted and most promising. The purely legalistic tendency to lay all stress upon a numerical rating and a definite examination test is by every means to be avoided. The student's character, his personality, his intellectual and moral habits, and his personal background and history, are more important than the mere accumulation of a large number of very high numerical ratings. Good ratings he must have, of course, but these cannot be allowed to stand alone. They are to be interpreted in the light of those other characteristics which are of such vital importance in the development of a

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 22-24.

worth while mind and character. More complete coöperation between those who have taught students and those who are seeking students fully worthy to be taught, will produce the best results when the doors of approach to any college or university are crowded with a small army of eager applicants for admission.*

COLUMBIA POLICIES OF ADMISSION

OCTOBER 6, 1902

Not a few matters of importance have been definitely settled at Columbia during the past twenty years, and settled, I believe, in almost every case, with wisdom and in accordance with sound principle. For example, it is settled policy at Columbia (1) that the requirements for admission to the Freshman Class of Columbia College shall not be raised beyond the point where they can be met by the student who has had a normal secondary school course of four years; (2) that these requirements, and those for admission to the Schools of Applied Science, the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Barnard College, and Teachers College as well, shall be stated in terms of the definitions formulated by the representative organizations of teachers of the several subjects, and administered, in coöperation with other colleges and with secondary schools, through the College Entrance Examination Board; (3) that a just balance shall be maintained between prescribed and elective studies in the undergraduate course, the student being in every case guided or supervised in his selection of subjects; (4) that Columbia College shall offer but a single degree, that of Bachelor of Arts, and that that degree shall represent the elements of a liberal education as it is conceived and defined by the Faculty of Columbia College; (5) that the several technical and professional schools shall rest upon a college course (though not necessarily one four years in length) as a foundation, either at once — as in the case of the School of Law — or as

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 20-21.

soon as practicable — as in the case of the Schools of Applied Science and of Medicine; and (6) that all possible means shall be taken to shorten the time in which a college degree and a professional or technical degree may be taken, by coöperation between the Faculty of Columbia College and the Faculties of Law, Medicine, Applied Science, and Teachers College.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

Few matters connected with higher education have been more hotly or more eagerly debated during the past twenty-five years than the question of college admission. The establishment of the typical colleges antedated the existence of well-organized and coherent secondary schools, and it was once the fashion of colleges everywhere to test applicants for admission by a formal examination held at the college itself. As time went on, this examination broadened in scope and increased in intensiveness. As the demand for secondary education grew and public high schools were established in all parts of the country, the problems involved in the relation between secondary school and college rapidly became acute. The secondary school considered itself, too often with justice, harassed and limited by the regulations attending the college admission examination, and asked, with increasing emphasis, that its own work be accepted at its face value and that students be permitted to pass from school to college without any formal test other than such as the school itself might impose as a condition of graduation. In some of the Western states there long ago grew up a relationship between the secondary schools and the state universities which was designed to meet the complaints and criticisms of the secondary schools. Representatives of the state university undertook, first to inspect, and then to accredit secondary schools, and pupils coming from accredited secondary schools, properly certificated, were admitted to the state university without examination. This plan had the merit of simplicity, it was consonant with an upbuilding of

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 22-23.

college attendance, and it assisted in developing an orderly educational system; it spread rapidly to institutions other than state universities and included schools other than those maintained by public tax. So far has this system of admission to college by certificate gone that at the present time there are understood to be but seven institutions of collegiate grade in the country which uniformly require all candidates for admission to the Freshman Class to pass an examination. These seven are Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Columbia, Haverford, Vanderbilt, and Bryn Mawr.

Until the establishment, in 1900, of the College Entrance Examination Board, the work of which has been vigorously supported by Columbia from the very beginning, the college admission examinations, where they existed, were in a state of chaos. Institutional and individual idiosyncrasy ran riot. Even in the rare case where the stated conditions of admission to two institutions were identical, they were administered so differently as to destroy all possible similarity between them. The form and style of the examination were determined wholly by the college authorities, and the examinations so set were frequently not only out of harmony with the best work of the secondary schools, but in antagonism to it. College teachers who had seen nothing of secondary school service and who were ignorant of secondary school conditions insisted stubbornly on having their own way in regard to the examinations set in the subjects that they taught. From this unhappy condition, the higher education of the country has been in large part rescued by the work of the College Entrance Examination Board. Slowly, but surely, the examination tests have been influenced by secondary school conditions as interpreted by secondary school teachers. The force of educational gravitation has tended to bring the colleges together toward agreement upon uniform statements of entrance conditions, and the definitions of subjects, the study of which is prescribed for college admission, have been vastly improved through the cooperation of expert scholars and teachers.

Even after all this had been accomplished, the rather sharp

antagonism between admission to college by certificate and admission to college by examination remained. This matter, in all its phases, has been carefully studied and discussed at Columbia for many years. The Faculties in charge of undergraduate instruction were unwilling to give up the admission examination as a test of the candidate's preparation for college work, and they distrusted the general acceptance of school certificates for the very obvious reason that, freed from any compelling supervision and subject to the pressure of teachers and parents and to the competitive conditions which exist between schools of every kind, it seemed quite impossible to hope that severe standards of excellence in secondary school work could be insisted upon or upheld without a formal test by an independent authority. On the other hand, it had become increasingly evident that to treat the college admission test as sufficient in itself and to give no weight to a candidate's school record was unfair and not in the interest of the best educational policies and standards. Teachers would insist upon cramming their students for an examination upon which so much was to depend, instead of teaching and training them as they should be taught and trained. Fortunately, during the year a new method of college admission has been hit upon which seems to unite the advantages of the examination with the advantages of the certificate system, without surrendering the examination and without accepting the school certificate itself. . . .

The new system of admission consists in weighing, when a given candidate's application is under consideration, not only his scholarship as shown by the results of his college entrance examination, but his scholarship and personal characteristics as revealed by his secondary school record for a period of three or four years. This secondary school record is not to be taken as final by any means, but it is to be used to interpret the results of the formal examination. It is hoped and believed that in this way justice will be done to each candidate and that satisfactory standards of college admission will be insisted upon. Without

surrendering the distinct educational advantage which the college admission examination has, it is proposed hereafter to put that examination in its proper place and to give it only its just value in weighing the question of a student's fitness to undertake college work. An examination of this kind will tend more and more to become the natural and expected fruit of secondary school study and it will lose its present character of a dreaded and final ordeal. . . .

It would be worth while, and possibly very instructive, to ascertain what sort of results would follow from requesting the members of a Freshman Class, admitted to college by certificate, to try the examinations set on a few fundamental subjects — say English, mathematics, Latin, and history — by the College Entrance Examination Board. A great many observant teachers believe that a large majority of the students now admitted to college by certificate, free of all condition, would not be able to fare so well if they were subjected to the examination test.

The normal requirement for admission to the Freshman Class in Columbia College, as stated definitely in each annual announcement, is proficiency, to be tested by examination, in fifteen units of secondary school studies as specified. A unit implies the study of a subject for a time equivalent to five hours a week for one year. What shall be the policy of the Faculty toward the candidate who falls short of the standard fixed in some one or two particulars, or in slight degree? Shall such a candidate be forthwith rejected and returned to the secondary school for farther instruction and training, or shall he be permitted to go forward with his college work under certain conditions, which conditions include the satisfaction by him, within a reasonable time, of the full standard of proficiency fixed by the normal entrance requirement? Unless admission to college is to be treated as a matter purely mechanical, there can be but one answer to this question. Each candidate should obviously be treated on his own merits and admitted to college on condition, or returned to the secondary school, according as the one policy or the other

seems best adapted to his particular case. Of course, if the administration of the rules governing college admission were lax and standards were low, there never would be any students admitted on condition. Nothing would be simpler than so to rate the performance of each candidate for admission as to admit him without farther discussion or difficulty.

The existence of a class of students admitted to college on condition implies an entrance requirement rigidly administered in that broad, sympathetic, educational spirit which takes account of each individual student's needs and capacities. In assisting the students to make a transition from secondary school to college, it is in the highest degree important to bear in mind that the problem to be solved is a human problem. One must take into consideration, not only the individual's scholastic achievement, but his temperament, his home environment, and such hopes and plans for his future life as are already forming in his mind or have perhaps been formed for him. Experience proves that a good many candidates who are not able completely to fulfill the minimum requirements of admission, nevertheless, if admitted to college on condition, make excellent students, sometimes the very best.

It appears to be clear that if a college fixes a hard and fast entrance requirement and rejects everyone who does not comply with it strictly, that college will do as much damage to education as if it had no standards at all. Human beings are not to be measured as to their attainments by the laws of mechanics. They must be measured by laws which spring from human nature itself. The proper way to deal with those candidates who in some measure fall short of the minimum requirement is to say, for instance, in some cases, "We do not think that you are ready to come to college. If we admit you, we feel sure that you will be burdened with your work. You will probably fail in the examinations of your Freshman year and fall hopelessly behind and become discouraged. You will have neither pleasure nor profit in your college work under such circumstances. It will be intel-

lectual economy for you to go back to a secondary school for another term or another year, and to take up again there the subjects in which you appear to be weakest." On the other hand, in other cases, it may be wise to say, "It is true that you have not entirely complied with our minimum conditions of admission. Nevertheless, you are in good health, your school record for four years past is satisfactory, it is not bad even in those subjects in which your examination has been pretty poor. Therefore, we feel that there is reason to believe that you can probably do yourself justice in college and make a creditable worker. We shall give you a term or a year to prove whether we are right or not." That this wise, humane, and truly educational policy has been the means of saving many young men for higher education and a subsequent career of usefulness can hardly be doubted. . . .

These conclusions [that only about 20 percent of the Freshmen admitted conditionally fail to justify their admission], which the Registrar has reached after a patient and minute study of the records of the year, speak for themselves. The mechanical interpretation of the rules governing college admission would have excluded 55 students in September last, whereas it now appears that 44 of the 55 had the capacity and the training to acquit themselves creditably during the Freshman year. In my opinion, it is sound educational administration and wise educational policy to administer the rules governing college admission with such strictness that no favor is shown to the incompetent and with such good sense that no injury is done to the worthy and adequately prepared candidate whose formal record is defective in some slight degree.*

ACADEMIC CALENDAR

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

Long-standing American educational practice has made the academic year from September until June the educational unit.

* Report for 1908-9, pp. 16-26.

It has been the custom to admit college students in September only and to graduate them only in June. Classes have been organized and named on this basis and courses of instruction have in most cases been planned and conducted so as to continue throughout an entire academic year. In the lower schools this plan has long since been given up for one which uses a shorter time-unit and which effects semi-annual promotions and instructional changes. The fact that the public schools of New York City and vicinity had adopted a program of instruction which made it possible for students to be graduated in February as well as in June, and the fact that many of these students look forward to entering a college or scientific school, led to the adoption at Columbia, several years ago, of the semi-annual system of admission. While this plan has not been long in operation, and while the work of the College is not yet thoroughly adjusted to it, its advantages are plain and there can be little doubt that it has come to stay. If the high school student who is graduated in February cannot at once enter upon a college course, he is likely to drift away from the influence of a college education altogether and to enter upon some practical calling before the September entrance period comes around.

Moreover, under existing conditions, it seems probable that for most subjects of instruction the full year unit is neither educationally profitable nor financially economical. Under the operation of purely natural forces and laws, there has grown up in the University a tendency to shift to the half-year as the educational unit, and there is reason to believe that this tendency will grow stronger with time. Semi-annual admission and graduation of students certainly carry the semi-annual teaching unit with them as a necessary consequence. It is probably better, too, for the average student to devote himself with somewhat more concentration to fewer subjects than is now the case. It is difficult to restrain some students from dipping here and there into eight or ten subjects at one and the same time, with the result that no one of them is thoroughly understood or really mastered. By confin-

ing the student to a smaller number of subjects and by giving him more frequent exercises in each, the probability is that his powers of concentration and of reflection will be strengthened and that better progress will be made in his mastery of the subjects themselves.*

NEEDS AND PURPOSES

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

The fact must not be overlooked that one of the most important changes that has come over the American college has gone hand in hand with the steady widening of its constituency and is in part a cause and in part an effect of that widening. Not so very many years ago there were but few boys who went to college without a serious, definite purpose more or less scholarly in character. They were looking forward to the ministry, to teaching, or to the practice of law or medicine. Not many of them had in mind a career as merchant, financier, or corporation official. With the lapse of time and the increasing wealth of the country, this condition has been very much changed. It is now fashionable to go to college, at least to some colleges, and the attractions of college life and companionship are powerful motives in leading young men to strive to surmount the barrier of college admission. This new type of college student, whether he knows it or not, goes to college primarily for a social, not for an intellectual, purpose. His wish is to share in the attractive associations of an American college; he desires to participate in athletic sports; he hopes in after life to mingle freely and on terms of equality with college-bred men. It is a good thing that boys of this type should go to college, provided that the college will recognize their existence as a type and will deal with them accordingly. To try to turn such young men into scholars is a hopeless task. They are not fitted for high scholarship and they do not desire it. On the other hand, to bring down the level of scholarship of all college

* Report for 1907-8, pp. 14-15.

students to meet the capacities and the ambitions of this type of student is to do a grievous wrong to scholarship itself and to those who would like to become scholars. It has been a mistake to try to treat all undergraduates alike and to judge and test them all by the academic standards and the academic methods that have been developed over long periods of time for the serious-minded student. If the college course gives only inspiration, all else is secondary.

It certainly is hard to find anything new under the sun, for even away back when universities began, they were resorted to by men for whom scholarship had no great charms. Rashdall, in writing of student life in the Middle Ages, says:

To suppose that every student of the twelfth or early thirteenth centuries, even if he were one of those who faced toil and privation in the effort to graduate at Paris or at Oxford, was moved by pure and disinterested enthusiasm for knowledge, would be as absurd as to see a saint or a hero in every impecunious baron or soldier of fortune who fought for the Cross beneath the walls of Acre or of Damascus. The spirit of adventure, the desire to see the world, the ambition for distinction and promotion, even the baser thirst for booty, entered as largely into the motives of the average student as into those of the average Crusader.*

It is not likely that the division of students into pass men and honor men which prevails at Oxford could be adapted to our American conditions in precisely the form in which it exists in England, but there can be little doubt that the division which Oxford has made familiar corresponds to a real educational condition and meets a genuine educational need. The Committee on Instruction of the Faculty of Columbia College has been for some time past earnestly studying this question and will, in the not distant future, be able to report a plan for meeting what has become in almost every American college a genuine difficulty. The free elective system has broken down wherever it has been tried. It is now everywhere to be superseded by a definite and controlled plan of study which will not attempt to fit one cur-

* H. Rashdall, *Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, II, 614.

riculum to every student, but which, rather, will make as many curriculums as there are students, that each may satisfy his own intellectual needs and receive the training which it is best for him to have, while having his own individuality studied and respected.

There is, too, a curious inability or disinclination on the part of many college reformers, to see the necessity of furnishing minds and characters for the simple profession of gentleman. The generous and reflective use of leisure, and the passing of many an hour in the friendly companionship of the literature of all time, or of the best literature of our time, are occupation enough for some fortunate men, and society is poorer when those whose tastes and opportunities lead them in this direction are tempted or driven elsewhere. The cult of the will has gone far enough just now for the good of mankind; it is a futile and empty will that so often finds noisy and irritating expression. We may well turn for a season to a new cult of the habit of reflection, of sound and tender feeling, and of ethical and aesthetic insight and appreciation. The *Wille zur Macht* will one day be the undoing of democracy unless it is guided by profounder knowledge and serener contemplation. He is not a wise college reformer who forgets, or does not know, these things, and that is not a helpful college which pushes them restlessly aside.*

THE NEED OF LIMITING ENROLLMENTS

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

As has been pointed out from time to time in these Annual Reports, one of the most persistent and vexatious of the problems that confront Columbia University has to do with the determination of ways and means by which enrollment may be limited, and only really well-prepared, earnest and genuinely promising students admitted to share the advantages and opportunities which the severely taxed resources of the University have to

* Report for 1908-9, pp. 26-29.

offer. All systems of purely numerical or mechanical limitation are to be rejected at once. If it be announced that but 400 men will be admitted to the Freshman Class in Columbia College, the 401st to apply may be far more worthy of admission than any of the 400 who have preceded him. Any workable and ethical system of numerical limitation must be sufficiently flexible to permit the Director of Admissions and his associates to treat individual applicants on their merits to the largest possible extent. There are two factors the existence of which must never be overlooked. These are, first, the physical limitations of lecture-rooms, laboratories and libraries. There is a definite saturation point for each of these which must be determined and recognized. The second is the importance of treating every student as an individual and not merely as one of a crowd, class or group. Whether or not students are treated as individuals, and whether or not they have intimate and helpful relationships with their teachers, depends not in the least upon the size of the enrollment of any given school or college, but wholly upon two other matters which are of vital importance. These are, first, the proportion between teachers and students, and, second, the spirit of the institution itself. If the proportion between teachers and students is what it should be, then there will always be enough teachers available to institute and maintain personal relationships with those students who come under their care. If, in addition, the spirit of the institution is one of helpful understanding of each individual's needs, hopes and aspirations, then the problem of proper instruction and adequate educational needs is well-nigh solved. . . .

That work is itself an educational instrument of unrivaled utility and significance usually escapes public attention. The discipline and information which some persons obtain from books and laboratories, others obtain from systematic occupation. It would be a calamity if the notion were to gain ground that every youth of whatever talent, capacity or temperament must spend the years up to eighteen, twenty or twenty-one in

receiving systematic instruction in an educational institution. After the general foundations have been laid, farther systematic study becomes a specialty which is excellent for many persons, undesirable for many more, and quite useless for others. Those for whom it is either undesirable or useless almost invariably contract bad habits, both mental, moral and physical, while following a course of college residence and study for which they have neither taste, disposition, nor capacity. It takes all sorts and kinds of people to make a world, and not all of the best of them will be college graduates by any means.*

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 28-31.

XI

THE UNDERGRADUATE CURRICULUM

REVISION OF THE TRADITIONAL CURRICULUM

OCTOBER 6, 1902

IF Columbia College should offer two courses in the liberal arts and sciences, one of two years and one of four years in length, the second including the first, the question would at once arise as to what degrees or other marks of academic recognition would be conferred upon students who had satisfactorily completed them.

Two answers appear to be possible. First, we may withhold the bachelor's degree until the completion of the longer course, and grant some new designation to those who satisfactorily complete the shorter course. This has been done at the University of Chicago, where graduates of the junior college course of two years are made Associates in Arts. Or we may degrade — as it is called — the bachelor's degree from the artificial position in which the developments of the last forty years have placed it, and confer it upon the graduates of the shorter course of two years, and give the degree of Master of Arts for the longer course of four years. The latter alternative would be my own preference. Such a plan would bring the degree of Bachelor of Arts two years earlier than now and would place it substantially on a par with the bachelor's degree in France, the *Zeugniß der Reife* in Germany, and the ordinary degree in course as conferred by the English and the Scottish universities. It would also be substantially on a par with the Columbia College degree of 1860.

In this connection it must be remembered that it is not the A.B. degree of today which is so much extolled and so highly esteemed as the mark of a liberal education gained by hard study and severe discipline, but that of one and two generations ago.

The A.B. degree of today is a very uncertain quantity, and time alone will show whether it means much or little.

The degree of Master of Arts is an entirely appropriate reward for the completion of a college course, under the new conditions proposed, four years in length. This degree has been put to many varied uses and has no generally accepted significance. . . . To the best of my knowledge and belief, the fixing of the degree of Master of Arts at the close of a four-years' undergraduate course would involve no real alteration in the standard required on the part of those coming to Columbia from other institutions. For students of Columbia College it would bring the degree within reach after four years of residence instead of five.

In the case of candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, the completion of the longer college course, or its equivalent elsewhere, would of course be required, and also the same minimum period of post-graduate resident study as now. There would be no alteration in the time necessary or the standard now set for that degree, which as conferred at Columbia is recognized as conforming to the highest and best standards.

With the courses in applied science and in medicine fixed at four years, to base them upon a two-years' college course would be to elevate them to a proper university standard and to ensure the best possible class of students.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

In several respects the new program of studies for Columbia College marks a long step forward in college education. In the first place, it removes the emphasis from the number of years spent in college study, where it has rested so long, and places it upon the character of the work done in college, where it ought to be. Moreover, it offers an advantage to the student whose work is consistently faithful and good, and punishes severely the student whose work is negligent or poor. It breaks up the lock-step, or system of uniform annual promotions from class to class,

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 43-46.

which has lingered on in the colleges long after it has disappeared from the elementary and secondary schools. Sound standards of college education have probably no stouter foe than the well-established tradition of annual admission and annual promotion from class to class. Students will hereafter be admitted to the College steadily in February at the beginning of the second half-year, as well as in September at the beginning of the first half-year. The measure of their accomplishment will be a record of work done, recorded in "points," and they will be graduated whenever they shall have accomplished the minimum number of points required, namely, 124. . . .

All of the prescribed courses and a considerable proportion of the elective courses may be taken in the first half of the undergraduate course, and the student will be urged to complete all of his prescribed work in the first two years of his residence. When a student shall have obtained in Columbia College 72 points, including all prescribed courses — which means when he shall have completed satisfactorily work which will require his attendance in lecture-room or laboratory for eighteen hours a week for each of two academic years — he will be free, if he so chooses, to substitute for the wide elective opportunity then offered him, the curriculum offered by one of the professional schools of the University.* On completing successfully two years of such professional curriculum, he will obtain his bachelor's degree, on the recommendation of the Faculty of Columbia College, having been in the meantime carried upon the rolls of the College as a student therein and subject to the jurisdiction of its Dean. . . .

Every proposal to shorten the deplorably long period now devoted to secondary, collegiate and professional study combined, is met by the statement that such shortening is a concession to the materialistic tendencies of the time and to the passion for haste and superficiality. It may be that some such motive has actuated a few of those who have insisted that the period devoted

* The curriculum of the School of Law is the sole exception. To choose it, the student must have obtained in Columbia College 94 points, and may then gain his Bachelor's degree in one year.

to collegiate and professional study combined must be shortened, but I doubt it. "To spend too much time in studies," said Bacon, "is sloth." The real fact is that the colleges and professional schools are too often not only wasting the time of their students and the money of the communities which support them, but they are doing a grievous injury to the youth committed to their care by encouraging them to dawdle, on the pretense of affording them leisure to grow and to think. The right use of leisure is an accomplishment reserved for the trained and cultivated mind. Adolescent youth has no information on this subject and not much capacity. Moreover, under the existing system the student is encouraged not only not to use his powers and opportunities well, but to use them in a wrong way. He is kept dealing with a variety of elementary topics over which his mind plays listlessly, instead of being carried forward into some field of scholarship where his interest will be developed and his powers strengthened by mastery of something more than the mere elements. A boy must get whatever general training he is going to have by the time he is twenty years of age. After that he ought to be doing something special, whether that something be classical philology, or experimental physics, or the study of a profession. The time has then come for him to stop picking idly at the elements of new languages, new sciences, and new phases of history and literature.

Against these prevailing abuses the program of studies adopted by the Faculty of Columbia College makes ample provision. After the prescribed subjects of study have been completed and the foundation for his intellectual life has been laid, the student is to be not only encouraged but compelled to develop his powers and interests in some definite direction. If he is not anxious to take up law, medicine, engineering, or teaching, or if he desires to specialize in some field before taking up those professional studies, ample opportunity is afforded him to do so. He need not enter the professional school, if he so prefers, until after his entire 124 points shall have been made in the liberal arts and

sciences; but if he chooses this alternative, the program requires that he shall use his time well, and so as to gain a more thorough mastery of some part of the field of knowledge chosen by him.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

This action [the offering of the degree of Bachelor of Science for those who elect science courses in preference to Latin and Greek] does not mean that the position of the College in the University is in any way altered. It will continue to give a general or liberal training, while the professional and graduate schools will devote themselves to highly specialized training. But the College will hereafter offer its general or liberal training along two parallel lines, one of which will include the study of an ancient language and its literature, while the other will include the study of the natural and physical sciences in lieu of the study of an ancient language and its literature.

The new program of studies, constituted as just described, is the answer made by Columbia College, by the unanimous voice of its Faculty, to the problem by which every college is faced. The Faculty of Columbia College say explicitly that to prescribe graduation from a four-year college course as a *sine qua non* for the professional study of law, medicine, engineering, or teaching is not to do a good thing, but a bad thing. It is to set a high standard, measured quantitatively, but a wrong standard measured educationally. It is to put the colleges and professional schools in a false attitude before the public, and to confuse rather than to solve the social and economic problems by which higher education is now surrounded.

Whatever might have been said for a rigid, four-year college course, forty years ago when the standard of admission could be reached in two years less than at present, and when the studies were wholly prescribed, nothing can be said for it now with the greatly increased requirements for admission, the advanced age of the students, and the wide prevalence of the elective system

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 11-15.

of study. It is useless to say that American students between nineteen and twenty-three years of age cannot with advantage pursue professional and other university subjects of study, when these are precisely the years at which the students of France and Germany are pursuing those studies most vigorously and to greatest advantage.

The notion that either culture or efficiency will suffer by putting a stop to the indefensible waste in education, which our national spirit of wastefulness has permitted to grow up, is ludicrous. Any culture that is worthy of the name and any efficiency that is worth having will be increased, not diminished, by bringing to an end the idling and dawdling that now characterize so much of American higher education. The whole difficulty has arisen from a tendency, in its origin sound and valid, to raise the standard of education. This tendency, however, soon passed into a tendency to increase requirements for admission to the various types of institution, without stopping to consider whether this step improved standards and made education more efficient or not.

The vigorous discussion concerning the American college and its problems, which has been carried on for some years past, has made it increasingly clear that the college has no enemies who are likely to do it harm, other than those who in the guise of friends insist that the college shall not be altered or modified in any respect in order to adapt it to changed educational conditions. To hold such a view is to make of the college, as it has been, a genuine educational fetish. Its quantitative standards, its four years of resident study, and its traditions, even when they are feeblest, seem to some to be things to be preserved at all hazards. If they were to be preserved at all hazards it is not unlikely that the college itself would in the not distant future come to an end. The college problem is not now, and has not been, primarily, one of reducing the length of the college course, any more than it has been a problem of extending the length of the college course. It has been simply the problem of treating the college course on

sound educational principles as we know them today, and of adapting a venerable and useful institution to changed conditions, educational, social, and economic. Columbia University has now done its part and made its contribution to the solution of these problems. The future will determine how far its solution is wise, and how far it needs still further consideration and adjustment. The Faculty of Columbia College feel that the period of experimentation is passed, and that for some time to come they may go forward without disturbance or interruption in the work of the plan of instruction which they have unanimously framed.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

The distinction between the two degrees, Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science, turned upon whether or not a student had studied Greek or Latin for a designated period. In the action now taken, it is provided that neither Latin nor Greek shall longer be prescribed for the degree of Bachelor of Arts, but that that degree shall be awarded on the recommendation of the Faculty of the College to any student who shall have satisfactorily completed a course of liberal study chosen in accordance with the general regulation established by the Faculty. . . .

The Dean's Report shows that the Columbia College students of today, if classified according to the subjects of their major intellectual interest, fall into groups which rank numerically in the following order: English and modern languages, history, economics and politics, laboratory sciences, philosophy and allied subjects, mathematics and classics. Under such circumstances, to insist upon a prescription of either Greek or Latin would certainly be onerous and, if measured by results, probably without educational justification in the case of a large majority of the undergraduates. On the other hand, to divide the undergraduate students into two groups according as they do or do not take a modicum of classical study, has proved to be disadvantageous. The action taken by the Faculty, therefore, appears to be the

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 17-19.

logical result of the conditions with which the Faculty had to deal, and not the whim or partisan preference of any group of College teachers. It will remain the duty of the Faculty of Columbia College to make certain that no man is recommended for the degree of Bachelor of Arts who has not chosen from the program of studies a curriculum so serious, so well organized, so coherent, and so catholic as to entitle him fairly to the possession of that degree which has historically stood for a liberal training.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

One of the notable educational advances of the year is the institution, under the Faculty of Columbia College, of a course of instruction in contemporary civilization prescribed for all Freshmen. The object of this course is to give first-year college students an outlook over the modern world, as well as a point of view that will enable them better to understand and to appreciate their subsequent studies. For those college students who are enamored of the cruder and more stupid forms of radicalism, early instruction in the facts relating to the origin and development of modern civilization and the part that time plays in building and perfecting human institutions, is of the greatest value. For those college students who are afflicted with the more stubborn forms of conservatism, early appreciation of the fact that movement and development are characteristic of life and that change may be constructive as well as destructive, is most desirable. The main purpose of the course is to lay a foundation for intelligent citizenship, and to enable undergraduate students to prepare themselves to make decisions concerning public questions with intelligence and with conviction. It is not the purpose of this course to teach or to preach doctrine, but rather to show the movement of civilization in its great achievement of constructive progress. The content of the course is drawn not merely from history, but from economics, politics, ethics and social science.†

* Report for 1915-16, pp. 10-12.

† Report for 1918-19, pp. 41-42.

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

The center of gravity of a university's interest moves from point to point. The fundamental interpretative subjects, history, literature, and most of all philosophy, of course retain their primacy amidst all change. Fifty years ago the center of gravity lay in the classical languages and literatures. It then moved, with results that were not entirely satisfactory, to the natural and experimental sciences. From these it moved a little later to the field of social and political science, and there perhaps it rests at the present time, although in a state of unstable equilibrium. It seems likely that in the near future the most important subjects in Columbia University are to be public law, international relations, public health, chemical engineering, business administration, training economic advisers for industrial and financial institutions, and the teaching of French and Spanish. The political, economic, and purely business developments of the past decade, especially as these have been influenced by the war, combine to bring about this result. The work now being provided in these various subjects should be carefully examined and studied with a view to its improvement, strengthening and development, in order that there may be no lack of leadership when the increased demands are made upon us.*

COLLAPSE OF THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

The system of unrestricted election in college studies, when introduced in America, was intended to promote scholarship by making appeal to particular tastes and capacities. Doubtless in a certain limited number of cases the system succeeded; but experience seems to indicate that in a much larger number of cases it failed of its purpose. The plan for a degree with honors which has now been instituted in Columbia College was not brought forward until after a searching study had been made of the

* Report for 1918-19, p. 51.

practical operation of the existing program of studies. In formulating their policies, the Committee on Instruction and the Faculty had a firm basis of ascertained fact to build upon. The practical working of the plan will be followed with keen interest, not only here but elsewhere, as the problem which it attempts to solve is one that faces, in one form or another, every American college.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

A most unhappy result of the elective system introduced a generation ago, and one that was not foreseen, was the destruction of that common body of knowledge which held educated men together in understanding and in sympathy. For more than a thousand years educated men had pursued pretty much the same studies, had read pretty much the same books, and had gained a common stock of information concerning man and nature. The elective system first weakened and then destroyed that common body of knowledge, and as a result brought in its train intellectual, moral, social, and political consequences that are nothing less than grievous. The narrowing of one's field of information to the subject in which he early displays the greatest interest, means cutting him off from intellectual contact and sympathy with all but his own fellow specialists. Intellectual, moral, and social unity is broken up, and classes, cliques, and groups become first influential and then dominant. Civilization cannot be so maintained, much less advanced. If the educated men and women who are the natural leaders of modern society have little or nothing in common, the doom of such leadership is sealed.†

THE CLASSICAL PROGRAM AND THE SEARCH FOR A SUBSTITUTE

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

The decline in the number of those American students who study Greek and Latin and who have a reasonable familiarity

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 35-36.

† Report for 1921-22, pp. 16-17.

with the history and literature of Greece and Rome is greatly to be deplored. No educational substitute for Greek and Latin has ever been found, and none will be found so long as our present civilization endures, for the simple reason that to study Greek and Latin under wise and inspiring guidance is to study the embryology of the civilization which we call European and American. In every other field of inquiry having to do with living things, the study of embryology is strongly emphasized and highly esteemed. What is now being attempted all over this country is to train youth in a comprehension of a civilization which has historic and easily examined roots, without revealing to them the fact, and often without even understanding the fact, that modern civilization has roots. Phrase-making and vague aspirations for the improvement of other people are, unfortunately, now supposed to be a satisfactory substitute for an understanding of how civilization came to be what it is. It so happens, too, that in the embryonic period of our civilization, man's intellectual and aesthetic achievements were on a remarkable scale of excellence. These achievements rightly became the standard of judgment and of taste for those generations and centuries that followed. When we turn aside from the study of Greek and Latin, therefore, we not only give up the study of the embryology of civilization but we lose the great advantage which follows from intimate association with some of the highest forms of intellectual and aesthetic achievement.

Conditions that now exist lay a heavy burden upon teachers of the ancient classics. They have heretofore been all too successful in concealing from their pupils the real significance and importance of Greek and Latin studies. Unless Greek and Latin are to become museum pieces, those who teach them must catch and transmit more of the real spirit and meaning of the classics than they have been in the habit of doing. Let him who wishes to see classical knowledge in action read any one of a hundred passages in Morley's *Life of Gladstone*, or any one of a score of pages in the *Life* of his one-time colleague, Robert Lowe, Viscount

Sherbrooke, or the *Life and Letters* of Benjamin Jowett, Master of Balliol.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

It was manifestly impossible and undesirable, for many reasons, to reinstate the old prescribed program of college studies. The world had outgrown it; but the world had not outgrown, and will never outgrow, the principles upon which that prescribed course of study was based. In seeking for a substitute, and with the direct aim of providing a common body of knowledge and a field of common interest for the undergraduates in Columbia College, the Faculty wrought out and introduced the course of instruction known as Introduction to Contemporary Civilization, attendance upon which is prescribed for Freshmen five times weekly. This course, which claims the energies of some twenty of the most competent and zealous of the College teachers, has been from the outset a pronounced success, and is now fortunately being imitated elsewhere. By its survey of the origins and present character of the fundamental problems which confront the world of today, it offers a body of instruction both interesting in itself and highly practical, whether as a foundation for more advanced knowledge or as a means of uniting those who follow the course by a common bond of much strength, no matter how diverse may be their later and more special studies. The making and the introduction of this course have been a distinct achievement and a contribution, both original and rich, to the solution of the American college problem.

The College Faculty is now prepared to go a step farther, and as soon as the material is prepared, to introduce a second course of this general character in the form of an Introduction to Modern Science. This course will offer to the undergraduate a systematic and well-knit exposition of the fundamental assumptions, laws, and methods of modern science, and will serve as the best possible introduction to the closer study of some particular sci-

* Report for 1915-16, pp. 12-13.

ence. It is often remarked that while for sixty years past immense sums have been spent upon natural science, and while the natural sciences have in that period rendered service to mankind that is literally enormous, no substantial headway has been made in bringing the general or popular mind under the influence of scientific methods and scientific ideals. It may fairly be asked whether an explanation of this curious result is not to be sought in the fact that the study of science has been and is so highly specialized. The teacher of physics or of chemistry is glad and willing to bend every energy to the training of future physicists or chemists, but he is apt to show no great patience or skill in dealing with the problem of making the fundamentals of his science known to the intelligent man who is not a specialist. There is a real lack here, and if the Introduction to Modern Science now being prepared by the College Faculty shall be successful in supplying it, Columbia College will have rendered yet another great service to American education. Through McVickar Columbia College introduced the teaching of economics in America. Through Davies it made familiar the French mathematical texts that were much superior to the English texts that had been in earlier use. Through Anthon it poured out before the American student the riches of European scholarship in the fields of classical philology, history, and archaeology. Through Lieber it offered the soundest and clearest teaching ever given of the fundamental principles of civil liberty. Through the working out and establishment between 1880 and 1892 of the combined college and university course, it pointed the way to the development of the junior college and to the readjustment of American higher education in a manner which through saving of time and waste and the better adjustment of studies to the student's capacity and interest, constituted a contribution to the organization of higher education in America that is nothing short of epochal. If now through its group of active and devoted scholars of this day Columbia College can, by its Introduction to Contemporary Civilization and its Introduction to Modern Science,

repair the damage done by the elective system, it will once again have laid American education under a heavy debt.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

The history of the undergraduate program of study in the United States during the past half century illustrates once more how much easier it is to tear down than to build up. The old-fashioned narrow and carefully prescribed program of undergraduate study, resting chiefly as it did on the foundations of Greek, Latin and Mathematics, had no superior for the type of student for which it was devised and developed. It promoted in high degree that indispensable mental discipline at which it is now fashionable to jibe and to jeer on the part of those whose undisciplined minds are in evidence at every turn of expression. It provided an understructure of real knowledge of real things rather than a more or less emotional survey of changing opinions, ambitions and uncritical tastes. It turned out in Great Britain, in France, in Germany and in the United States generation after generation of minds of large competence, excellent furniture and substantial power.

The passing of this old-fashioned narrow and prescribed undergraduate program was the result of two well-defined causes. One of these was the immense mass of new knowledge and new information brought into being, first by the huge advances made by the sciences of nature and greatly increased by those studies which have to do with man's social, economic and political organization and development. All this provided new and important material which pressed, and justly, for recognition in some form in the undergraduate program. The other cause for the displacement of the old-fashioned prescribed program was the broadening of the college constituency to include youth drawn from every class and type of the population. Originally and for a long time the American undergraduate was the child of a father who was a member of one of the so-called learned professions

* Report for 1921-22, pp. 17-19.

or who was in one form or another economically independent. The family background, the inheritance and the outlook of these youths had much in common, and a single and substantially uniform program of study was well suited to their needs and tastes. The broadening of the basis of college education, however, changed all this and now the college population of the country is composed in very large part of ambitious youth whose parents and themselves make every conceivable sacrifice to gain the advantage of college residence and college training. The farmer, the small business man, the wage worker, are all represented, and most fortunately so, on the rolls of scores of American colleges.

To meet these two new and greatly changed conditions something radical had to be done by the colleges themselves. Here and there began fortuitous and tentative tampering with the established undergraduate program, but nothing that rested on principle was undertaken until President Eliot of Harvard brought forward his powerful argument in support of the thesis that the American undergraduate should be absolutely free to choose what subjects of study he would pursue while in college residence. One slogan of the strong movement which followed for the introduction of a system of free election was the quite false and misleading one that it matters not what the student studies but only how he studies it. Any slogan which regards as interchangeable for educational purposes a calculation of the orbits of the moons of Jupiter and a knowledge of the literature and the civilization of ancient Greece and Rome, is a subject rather for jest than for serious debate. In short, the argument for a system of free election was useful and, in a sense, unanswerable so long as it was negative and in form an attack on the no longer useful and no longer adequate uniform and prescribed program of undergraduate study. The argument broke down, however, when it was treated as positive and as offering a foundation for the construction of a new program of undergraduate study adapted to the new needs and the new conditions which had come into being. It was because of this fact that there began, and still con-

tinues, a series of more or less intelligent and intelligible experiments to construct an undergraduate program which shall maintain, so far as possible, the excellences of the old and at the same time make provision for the conditions which now exist.

One suggestion which commended itself to President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University was that the undergraduate program should consist of five groups, from among which each student should select the one which he preferred to follow. On paper this seemed admirable, but in practice individual students immediately began to propose the substitution of some course or subject lying outside the group of their preference for some course or subject contained in that group. No very good reason could be given why the substitution should not be made, and thereupon the system of hard and fast groups was either abandoned or greatly modified.

One consideration which is of highest importance in this connection is too often wholly overlooked. This has to do with the fact that it is essential for the effectiveness of the American college that there be a substantial common background, a substantial body of common interest and a substantial common purpose and ideal to bind together in sentiment and in understanding the entire body of those who constitute the membership of the undergraduate college. Deprived of this unifying force, a period of undergraduate study would differ but little in its general character-building and mind-forming influences from such intellectual work as the individual student might carry on independently or as a member of a small and highly specialized group. It cannot be too often or too strongly emphasized that early specialization and early vocational preparation are the mortal enemies of education. The substitute for education which they offer is a pathetic and deceptive shadow of reality.

The undergraduate program as now adopted for Columbia College gives full recognition to all these considerations, and in the exceptionally well-devised and well-conducted courses known as Introduction to Contemporary Civilization there is of-

ferred for the entire undergraduate body a unifying force of common understanding, common appreciation and common sentiment. This is the foundation upon which the remainder of the college program is built. It takes account not only of each student's individual tastes, capacities, needs and ambitions, but of the varied and various types of student who come to Columbia College. It would indeed be unfortunate if all these undergraduates were of a single type or cast in a common mold, and the fact that they are drawn from all parts of the United States and from all classes of the population puts upon the Faculty the heavy but welcome obligation of seeing to it that each of these American youths is given the best that the American college can offer, both by way of opportunity, by way of environment, by way of association and by way of direct instruction. It is a cause for deep satisfaction that it is in this spirit that Columbia College carries on its continuous life and service as the cornerstone of the foundation upon which this truly modern and truly democratic university is built.*

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 26-29.

XII

EXTRACURRICULAR LIFE

RELIGIOUS LIFE

NOVEMBER 5, 1906

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY is a Christian institution, and by its charter and traditions its Christianity is truly catholic and the spirit of St. Paul's Chapel will be as broad and as tolerant as the spirit of the University. Its office will be to preach and to teach Christian religion and Christian morals in the broadest and most fundamental sense of those terms. Since the foundation of the College a daily service has never been omitted, but now that a splendid building is provided for religious worship there is every reason to believe that this service will attract a larger number of students and be a far more important factor in the daily life of the University than ever before. . . .

The Chapel pulpit will be free to any Christian minister or other speaker who may from time to time be invited to occupy it.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1911

The purpose of the religious work under the direction of the Chaplain is to awaken, to refine and suitably to express the fundamental feelings of reverence and of desire for worship; to give such instruction as is needed to make plain the nature, the requirements and the significance of the religious life; and to render in and through the actual life of the University community such practical service as will best express and emphasize the relation which religion bears to the affairs of human life and show that it is more than a sentiment or a matter of speculation. It is the duty of the Chaplain to care for all these things and to give to the religious work and life of the University as a whole coherence and unity. . . .

* Report for 1905-6, pp. 2-3.

Many students are indifferent to religious appeals simply because they have never been brought to realize the importance of religion. Home training in religion has in this generation all but disappeared, and that which formerly supplied the foundation on which the college might build is no longer to be relied upon. Compulsory measures to overcome this deficiency are neither wise nor successful. Sensational methods are as objectionable on grounds of principle as of taste, and they produce no permanent results. The students must be reached individually; resourcefulness, sympathy, and determination will succeed in reaching them. . . .

The college world is peculiarly sensitive to all the forces that affect religious belief, and the changes and cross currents in the religious and anti-religious thinking of the present day are quickly reflected in the attitude of students. Among the more serious students there is to be found almost uniformly a sincere idealism and remarkable appreciation of the highest standards of service and an acceptance of them, as well as a real desire to know the truth about religion and to gain from it inspiration and support. Such students demand of one who offers them religious instruction perfect fairness and a willingness to discuss every aspect of the problems which perplex and confuse them. When a thoughtful student is working on an assigned problem in history or in economics, when he is examining for himself the Magna Charta or the principles underlying the institution of private property, he feels, as he has never felt before, the thrill of intellectual freedom and the fascination of intellectual mastery. He must be treated in like manner when the subject of his study is religion. . . .

In any event, it has been made plain that the attitude of the University in its corporate and collective capacity is not one of indifference to religious teaching and religious influences, but one of active and helpful interest.*

* Report for 1910-11, pp. 40-43, 45.

STUDENT RESIDENCE HALLS

OCTOBER 6, 1902

To provide, particularly for undergraduate students, those influences and advantages which attach to student residence in college buildings means the erection of dormitories. The living together of college students is that characteristic of college education which marks it off most sharply from secondary instruction. Students in college are, or ought to be, figuratively at least, away from home and members of a community of their own. College life and college spirit are real things as well as most effective educational instrumentalities. It is living together, not attending classes or listening to lectures together, which develops that strong attachment to Alma Mater, its ideals and its interests, which counts for so much both in the life of the individual student and in that of the University. . . . Country life and the conditions of life in a rural college may be better for some students; city life and the conditions of residence in an urban college may be better for others. Neither is absolutely the better, and both are excellent. But to make the comparison, or the contrast, at all fair, the city college must offer the advantages and attractions of dormitory life. . . . It should always be borne in mind that a dormitory is the one type of building used by a university from which an income may be derived. A gift of \$400,000, for example, if used for the building of dormitories, would provide, in perpetuity, an annual income of between \$18,000 and \$20,000 for the University.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

There is sometimes misapprehension as to the part which these residence halls play in the life of the University, and this misapprehension it is desirable to dispel. Residence halls are as much a part of the University's educational equipment as are libraries, laboratories, and lecture-rooms. They are built and maintained

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 28-29.

primarily for educational purposes and for their educational influence. They are not built and maintained primarily as income-producing investments of University funds. The fact that residence halls can be, and often are, so administered as to bring a reasonable return upon the funds used in their erection and equipment, is an incident — a fortunate incident, to be sure — but still an incident and in no wise an essential. Until recent years there was no thought that a college or university residence hall should be expected to pay an ordinary investment return upon its cost. At Oxford or Cambridge such a notion would excite a smile. In fact, it is not so very long ago that a prevailing custom in American school and college life was to fix an inclusive fee for instruction and room, in which case it became a mere matter of bookkeeping as to whether or not the residence hall or dormitory paid a return upon its cost. A university residence hall is neither a rabbit warren, a barracks, nor a boarding-house. It is a center of college and university life and influence, where no inconsiderable part of the student's education is to be gained by contact with fellow students and where he contributes to and shares in that college life and college spirit which, however elusive and difficult to define, are powerful factors in fashioning the mind and character of the American college student. Whenever a college or university loses sight of this fundamental fact and emphasizes unduly the element of financial return, it jeopardizes the whole undertaking. Such a policy might easily turn the residence halls from an influence for good into an influence for harm or danger. In this world, and more especially in universities, there are two contrasted ways of doing things. They may be done cheaply, which is always the most expensive and the most wasteful way; or they may be done right, which is always the most economical and the most businesslike way.

Three primary considerations in college and university administration are provisions for the health, the housing, and the instruction of the student body. Columbia University has in recent years made literally stupendous progress in all these directions.

It is satisfying and most significant to have the University Medical Officer report that the general health of those students who live in residence halls is noticeably better than that of those who live elsewhere. This of itself is an argument for the steady building of residence halls so long as there are students waiting to occupy them. A residence hall is, among other things, a place where good manners may be formed and strengthened. In personal bearing and habits of speech and of conduct, good examples exert a steady, if often unconscious, influence for the improvement of the bearing, the speech and the conduct of others. The comfortable and attractive provisions which the residence halls make for the social life of students living in them are in themselves educationally most advantageous. The space so used and applied is not space wasted. On the contrary, it is space most profitably employed.

Mr. Stephen Leacock, himself a university professor, not long ago wrote this significant passage:

As a college teacher I have long since realized that the most that the teacher, as such, can do for the student is a very limited matter. The real thing for the student is the life and environment that surrounds him. All that he really learns he learns, in a sense, by the active operation of his intellect and not as a passive recipient of lectures. And for this active operation what he needs most is the continued and intimate contact with his fellows. Students must live together and eat together, talk and smoke together. Experience shows that that is how their minds really grow. And they must live together in a rational and comfortable way. They must eat in a big dining room or hall, with oak beams across the ceiling and the stained glass in the windows and with a shield or tablet here and there upon the wall, to remind them between times of the men who went before them and left a name worthy of the memory of the college. If a student is to get from his college what it ought to give him, a college dormitory, with the life in common that it brings, is his absolute right. A university that fails to give it to him is cheating him.

If I were founding a university — and I say it with all the seriousness of which I am capable — I would found first a smoking room; then when I had a little more money in hand I would found a dormitory; then after that, or more properly with that, a decent reading room and a library. After that, if I still had money over

that I couldn't use, I would hire a professor and get some text books.* †

ATHLETICS AND OTHER ACTIVITIES‡

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

The last generation has seen grow up in every college community a great body of student activities, interesting and beneficial in themselves, springing from the social instincts and ambitions of the students. They carry on daily, weekly and monthly publications of merit; they conduct successfully and with skill the business administration of various student enterprises; they maintain, through coöperation, useful clubs and societies of their own. Those students who are most active in initiating and carrying on these undertakings receive marked benefit from them; they gain a certain amount of human experience which is not to be lightly valued; they get some training in business methods and in business responsibility; they learn some of the secrets of control and direction; and those who participate in the work of editing and publishing frequently do journalistic work of distinct merit. All this has grown up outside of the formal program of studies, and yet it represents an educational influence which is very genuine. The fact that these undertakings and organizations exist wherever students are brought together in a community of their own seems to prove that they are the natural forms for the expression of undergraduate interest and activity. The time has come when the College Faculty should take note of the existence of these educational forces at their very door and should attach proper weight and importance to them. They cannot be subjected to Faculty control, for that would be to deprive them of their spontaneity and naturalness and so of more than half their value. They should, however, be taken cognizance of, and the man who augments his work in the classroom and

* *The London Times Educational Supplement*, November 18, 1920.

† Report for 1923-24, pp. 14-16.

‡ See also "Control of College Athletics," pp. 441-48.

laboratory by valuable human or business training, through participation in recognized student activities, should find that fact entered to his credit upon the college records. It has been found possible and helpful to allow students participating in certain beneficial outdoor sports and games to make good in that way the requirement of formal work in the gymnasium. Why cannot the same principle be applied to the successful experience which a student may have in the organization and conduct of one of the students' own undertakings?

It is not enough to reply that these undertakings lie outside the formal program of studies. That is only to say that the formal program of studies is itself too narrow and does not touch all sides of the student's life and spur on all of his ambitions. Perhaps if the colleges were to take more interest in what the student likes to do out of class and would show some appreciation of his success in that field, he in turn would reciprocate by following his teachers and guides more eagerly into the intellectual paths of enjoyment and training whither they would lead him. There is certainly a suggestion here which may some day bear fruit in a fuller recognition of the educational value to the student of the life that he lives while he is a college undergraduate.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

There is an immense amount of purposeless and uninformed talk about American undergraduate life, activities and policies. The character-forming and habit-building function of college work and college life is quite generally pushed aside, while the wholly misleading notion that the college is nothing more than a group of vocational courses of instruction by means of which young men are prepared to earn a livelihood, has forced its way to the foreground.

The business of the college, as has been said a thousand times, is to prepare for life and not for making a living. The college represents in more or less articulate fashion the experience of

* Report for 1908-9, pp. 29-31.

the race in forming and disciplining the mind and character of adolescent youth. Its plan of work and its methods, while related to those of secondary instruction and growing out of them, are yet quite different from those and also quite different from the plan and methods of work which are characteristic of university residence and study. The college is a microcosm and has a character and an influence all its own. In the life and work of the college the cultivation of manners, as well as of morals, and of health and agreeable exercise as well as of the intellect, are essential parts. Despite this obvious fact, both manners and outdoor sports and exercise are quite too usually left to shift for themselves. This explains why it is quite possible to be both a college graduate and either a young barbarian or a physical nonentity.

It is in recognition of these fundamental and controlling facts that for the college student there is provided ample opportunity for systematic physical training and exercise in gymnasium, on the track and on the playing-field. It is for this reason that University physicians and physical directors are provided, and it is for this reason that careful supervision by competent academic officers is exercised over the dietary of students in residence. It is the sound tradition of education of college character and grade throughout the English-speaking world, that outdoor sports and athletic exercises are an integral part of it.

Out of these sports and exercises there grow naturally enough competitive games and undertakings between representatives of various colleges. It is at this point that the responsibility of the college itself stops and that of the students and alumni interested in athletic sports begins. The college as such cannot be expected to organize and maintain intercollegiate athletic competitions. Responsibility for these and the initiative in regard to them must rest with alumni and students themselves. The business of the college is to see that these intercollegiate competitions do not interfere with proper and normal standards of academic performance and devotion.

It is within the truth to say that so far as Columbia College is

concerned, a happy situation exists in respect to this field of undergraduate interest and occupation. The trying experiences of twenty-odd years ago served their purpose and taught their lesson. Whatever may be the case elsewhere, there is now full coöperation and understanding between those alumni and students who bear the brunt of athletic organization and athletic enterprise on the one hand, and the Dean and Faculty of Columbia College on the other. Athletics are fostered and favored and yet kept in their proper place and not permitted to disorganize the life and study of the college students. There is not the slightest taint of professionalism or semi-professionalism about athletics at Columbia today, and those practices that are so frequently complained of in the public press are, to the best of our knowledge and belief, non-existent among us. This is a healthy condition which can only have beneficial results as the tradition which upholds it grows in age and strength.

It is a ruling conception at Columbia University that the alumni are permanent members of the University body with very large, if somewhat indefinite, responsibilities and opportunities for helpfulness. The whole field of intercollegiate athletic games and contests is one in which those alumni who as undergraduates have participated in these games and contests and have excelled in them, may be looked to not only for counsel but for formal coöperation and responsible administrative control. Since these games and contests grow out of the life of the student body, it is by the student body, with the aid and counsel of their elders of the same type, that they should be carried on under conditions that befit academic tradition and academic dignity.*

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 33-35.

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PART FOUR

POSTGRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL
EDUCATION

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XIII

POSTGRADUATE EDUCATION

RESEARCH AND SCHOLARSHIP

OCTOBER 5, 1903

THIS company of students [graduate students], pursuing their chosen lines of advanced study and investigation, represent the very heart of the University, and it is largely to them and to their teachers that the University must look for its reputation for productive scholarship. Members of the undergraduate and professional Faculties can and should continually break new ground, but the students in those branches of the University cannot often be expected to do so. In the Schools of Philosophy, Political Science, and Pure Science, however, students and teachers are associated together in pushing forward the boundaries of human knowledge and in increasing the measure of human appreciation in some way, great or small. It is this spirit of investigation, of the scholarship which produces and not merely relates, that gives to these Schools their tone, and to the University as a whole its best inspiration. That Department is the best organized and conducted in which the most stimulus and guidance are given to the young investigator, in which his blunders and mistakes are most speedily and helpfully pointed out and corrected, and in which new and suggestive problems are constantly put forward to arouse the student's interest and to test his powers and methods of work. . . .

It is the highest duty of a university to promote research of every kind, in the old humanities as well as in the natural sciences, and to hold up the hands and add to the resources of those scholars who are most active and most successful as investigators and as leaders of bands of younger investigators who come to them for inspiration and for direction.*

* Report for 1902-3, pp. 32-34.

NOVEMBER 6, 1911

The enormous growth in recent years of the number of graduate students at Columbia has brought into prominence some new problems in relation to the establishment and enforcement of proper standards in graduate work. The ordinary requirement for matriculation as a graduate student is the possession of a baccalaureate degree or its equivalent from an accepted institution in the United States or abroad. Inasmuch as the list of accepted institutions now contains many score of names, and since educational conditions and standards vary so greatly in the United States, and even to some extent in Europe as well, it is clear that the mere possession of a baccalaureate degree can serve as little more than a guide to the administrative officers who are charged with the duty of accepting and registering graduate students. The Statutes of the University distinguish between registration and matriculation, and the time has come when the Graduate Faculties and the University Council might well address themselves to the question whether it would not be wise and in the interest of the best type of graduate instruction to make use of this distinction between registration and matriculation and to matriculate as candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Columbia only such students as, having previously gained the baccalaureate degree or its equivalent, had demonstrated at Columbia University or elsewhere genuine capacity and fitness for graduate work. Were such a rule in force, then any student holding a baccalaureate degree might be permitted to register in one of the graduate schools and given an opportunity to prove whether or not the University would be justified in accepting him later as a matriculant.

During the last twenty-five years there has developed among the colleges and schools of the United States a deplorable form of educational snobbery, which insists that a candidate for appointment to a teaching position shall have gained the privilege of writing the letters Ph.D. after his name. This fact has given

to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy a commercial value which it ought not to have, and it has sent to Columbia University and to all American universities no inconsiderable number of students whose chief aim is not graduate work or training in the methods of research, but simply the acquisition of a higher degree. Like the candidate for admission to the Bar of England who must eat so many dinners at one of the designated Inns of the Court, the candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy who approaches his work from this very practical point of view regards himself as entitled to receive the degree when he has been in residence so many terms, or has attended so many courses, or has gained a given number of points, or has paid a designated minimum fee. . . .

Graduate work is not merely advanced undergraduate work followed in the same spirit and by the same methods as those which characterize undergraduate instruction, but it is training in the method of mastering a special subject of study with a view to preparing the student to advance the knowledge of that subject by his own contributions. Graduate work, to be worthy the name, must of course rest upon that general foundation which was once known as liberal culture, as a preparation. With this preparation, the true graduate student proceeds to acquire extensive and exact knowledge regarding a particular field and to submit himself to rigorous training in the methods which have been found most successful in its developments and cultivation. No amount of residence at a university and no amount of attendance upon courses should ever, of themselves, secure for a candidate the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. If the degree is to be rescued and restored to the position which it was once thought to hold and which it should hold, it must be treated as a scholarly possession, and not as a commercial advantage.

As a matter of fact, few persons are less well equipped to make good secondary school and college teachers than the most recent possessors of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. If they have been serious students, as must be assumed, then their training and

intellectual interest for some years preceding the obtaining of the degree have not been of the kind that relate themselves directly to the work of instruction in school or college. The man who has recently acquired the degree of Doctor of Philosophy may be an admirable person to teach at once in secondary school or college, but under present conditions the chances are that he is not such a person. The first step, then, is to correct the erroneous opinion which leads those charged with the duty of making appointments in secondary schools and colleges to regard the possession by applicants of a Ph.D. degree as an essential prerequisite to securing an appointment. If this could be accomplished, the number of candidates for the degree in the American universities would at once diminish, but the ranks of serious scholarship would lose few probable recruits. Graduate faculties and individual professors might then, freely and without prejudice to a student's economic interests, devote themselves to his purely scholarly training. It can hardly be doubted that the results would be beneficent, although the output of Doctors of Philosophy would be diminished.

It is important to keep steadily in mind a correct standard of judgment as to success in graduate work. Perhaps there is no surer evidence of the possession of a scholar's independent judgment than the ability to choose and to weigh really relevant material in contrast to that which is subsidiary and unimportant. The scholar, like the artist, must see the lights and shadows on his subject. To confuse them is to produce, not a painting, but a daub. The accomplished Dean of the Graduate School at Princeton University, Professor West, made some years ago this admirable statement of what should be the aim of the graduate student's endeavors:

- To find and use the literature of his subject, including important older monographs and editions, as well as current journals;
- To enlarge his acquaintance with his field of study by continuous reading, observation and reflection;
- To trace and estimate the evidence regarding particular problems;

To acquire the methods of exact research, to develop them by his own inventive effort, and to apply them in investigation;
To subject all his conclusions to the test of rigorous criticism;
To perceive the relation which each investigation he pursues bears to the whole of which that investigation forms a part:
To distinguish the real issues in question, and to perceive where the discovery of truth hitherto unknown is possible.

It is not easy to deal with large and complicated problems such as those of graduate work by formulas, by regulations, or by rules. The individual teaching scholars must be set free, with only such indications of procedure as are necessary in the interest of academic order, to discover talent and capacity in their own pupils, to direct those pupils to the most helpful and fruitful lines of work, and to signify when their attainment is sufficiently advanced to warrant their receiving the badge of scholarship implied in the conferring of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

It may be questioned whether the term "graduate studies" is susceptible of sufficiently precise definition to be much longer useful for the purpose which it served for half a century. When the undergraduate program of study was narrowly confined to a few subjects and largely or wholly prescribed, the term "graduate studies" had a reasonably definite meaning. Under existing conditions, however, it would be hard to define graduate studies in any other way than such studies as may be taken by a graduate student, one who has already gained a baccalaureate degree. Such studies may as a matter of fact be quite elementary, if it so happens that the particular student has not earlier pursued them. On the other hand, such studies may be fairly advanced in character, if they lie in a field where the student has already worked for three or four undergraduate years. A graduate student may be at one and the same time studying the elements of the Russian language, Russian history, and Russian literature, while carrying

* Report for 1910-11, pp. 28-33.

on advanced work in Romance philology. Perhaps the real significance of the rich provision which is made for the so-called graduate studies is that ambitious youth may follow the insistent advice of Mark Pattison to the undergraduates of Lincoln College — "For pity's sake, get to the bottom of something!"

The true graduate student is not one who in desultory fashion takes up the elementary study of subjects hitherto unfamiliar, but rather he who devotes himself to the intensive cultivation of a particular designated field of knowledge, for which task he has already prepared himself by a substantial training in its more elementary parts. What such a student should always have in view, of course, is not merely the acquisition of knowledge or cultivation of his own intellectual powers, but rather training in methods of inquiry and a stimulus to imagination that will lead him in turn to productive work of his own. This fruitful type of university study will be much advanced by relaxing to the greatest extent possible those technical and administrative rules which were originally instituted when American university education was in its formative period, in order to define and protect standards and to give precision to ideas which were then rather vaguely held. Forty years of experience should now make it possible to dispense with many of these formal restrictions which often bear heavily alike upon the university teacher and the university student.

Academic traditions and customs are hard to change and it is not desirable that they should be changed without sufficient reason. The present time, however, is the most opportune and the most inviting that has presented itself for several generations, to ask the most searching questions as to the wisdom and effectiveness of existing university organization and policies, and to ask frankly whether they cannot be substantially altered for the better.*

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 19-20.

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

The beginnings of genuine graduate work in the United States, at Johns Hopkins University in 1876, at Columbia University in 1880, and elsewhere, were under fortunate conditions. A few men of strong personality and of ripe scholarship surrounded themselves in more or less informal fashion with small groups of younger and ambitious college graduates. Fifty years ago, and even less, the highest type of college graduate often chose an academic career and made severe sacrifices to prepare himself for it. The relations at that time between the directing scholars and their youthful associates and apprentices were always cordial and often intimate. Mind directly shaped mind, and the scholarly method was learned rather by imitation than through instruction. As the number of graduate students multiplied, and as the inevitable academic machinery to care for their needs was brought into existence, graduate work began to lose something of its spontaneity and informality, and became more or less highly organized. It was not long before an imposing array of rules for the guidance of graduate students made their appearance. The study of certain topics or of certain groups of topics was prescribed or enjoined. Elaborate and detailed lecture courses came into existence and tended to displace the constant and informal conferences between the older and the younger scholar. Under such circumstances it is not strange that graduate work assimilated itself increasingly to undergraduate work, both in spirit and in method, and that it tended to become undergraduate work prolonged and extended.

The distinction between the two types of work is not a hard and fast one, but it rests upon the acquisition by the youth of a disciplined maturity. This disciplined maturity will be reached in some cases at an earlier period than in others, but without it genuine graduate work is impossible. The notion sometimes advanced that a sound method for conducting graduate work is also the sound method for conducting the kindergarten and elemen-

tary school, rests upon a complete misunderstanding of the whole educational process and of the purpose for which that process exists.

The essentials for successful and productive graduate work are four: strong, guiding personalities, rich in scholarship; opportunity for personal contact and close relationship between these personalities and those who come to them for stimulus and for guidance; the necessary equipment or apparatus for independent study and research, whether in libraries, in museums, or in laboratories; and the responsibility placed upon the graduate student for carrying on his own special studies without prescribed attendance upon given lectures or any other restriction upon his own disposition of the time spent in academic residence. The University need only make sure, first, that the graduate student gives evidence of having attained that disciplined maturity which alone will make graduate study profitable and productive; second, that he pays such substantial fee as will be his reasonable contribution toward the cost of maintaining the institution whose privileges he seeks and enjoys; and third, that he demonstrates by personal performance that he has carried his studies so far forward in some part of his chosen field as to have mastered the method of investigation therein and to have indicated the direction in which some addition, however slight, to the sum total of human knowledge may be gained. Whether he has attended any formal courses of lectures, should be a matter of small concern to the University. This is for the graduate student himself to choose and decide. He will often gain more from coming to know something of the personality and method of scholars in other fields than his own than by listening to a formal course of lectures on some topic in the field of his choice.

At present, graduate faculties themselves offer too many courses of instruction, and model their graduate work too largely upon those forms and methods that are found successful in undergraduate teaching. Were a university professor to confine himself in a single academic session to one course of lectures

given, say, four times weekly, it would perhaps be the ideal plan. This course of lectures would naturally offer not an array of facts to be found on the printed page but the lecturer's interpretation of facts, thus conveying directly to the minds of his hearers the results of his own ripe reflection and of his own scholarly endeavor. The rest of his time should be spent upon productive scholarship and in personal conferences with the group of advanced students who have attached themselves to him. Whether these conferences take the form of a seminar or not is a matter of indifference; but they offer the university professor the surest and most successful method of developing his own scholarly ideals in the minds of younger men. When the German universities were at the height of their reputation and influence, they were striving to follow the path here indicated, and some of them did so with marked success. It would be unfortunate in the extreme were the rapid growth in size of American graduate schools to result in fastening upon the American universities a form of highly organized and minute control of the time and effort of the graduate student that would in effect interfere with the controlling purpose of all graduate work, and take from the student that sense of independence and personal responsibility which are vital elements in the life and work of a true scholar.

It is not at all difficult to organize the advanced work of a department in letters, in history, in economics, or in social science precisely as a department in the experimental sciences is organized, with a director as presiding genius and guide and a competent staff in constant attendance for consultation and criticism. It is through the application of this method that the best work is done in the experimental sciences, and it is by the application of this method that the best work may be done in other fields as well. Scholarly companionship is the surest foundation for scholarly influence.

It is important that the University should not yield to the strong tendency which a group of scholars often manifests to

add to their number only those who are like-minded. Naturally and properly, in making new appointments to the staff the University will seek only men who are agreeable and effective as companions and associates. It would, however, be an error of considerable magnitude and one which, if persisted in, would limit a university's usefulness, to appoint only such scholars as held views of disputed and debatable subjects that were in close agreement with those of the scholars who had preceded them in university membership. Mere stubborn other-mindedness is an unlovely and unwelcome characteristic, and is not referred to in what is here written; but it is a distinct gain if the staff of a university includes men who approach the problems of philosophy, of economics, and of social science from different points of view. Either one has faith that truth, when known, will conquer error, or he has not. If one has that faith, while he will avoid arming error in its struggle for existence, he will not make the mistake of strengthening it by a form of proscription which gives offense to fair and open-minded men. There is, of course, a limit to open-mindedness. Mathematicians have no place in their company for a teacher, however talented, who believes that the circle can be squared or that the sum of the interior angles of a triangle is other than two right angles. Similarly, the physicist and the chemist would not accept as colleague a gifted teacher who might with sincere conviction hold views in contradiction to some laws of nature which they look upon as fundamental. There are similar limits of reasonableness and common sense beyond which dissent cannot be encouraged in philosophy, in economics, or in social science. The difficulty is not so much to fix these limits in the abstract as to make application of them in particular cases.

There is a great advantage to a university in drawing into its fellowship mature men who have given evidence of originality and power in letters or in science but who have not previously been actively engaged in teaching. There are not a few instances in which such men have notably strengthened a university by

reason of the freshness of their point of view and the absence of any limitation set upon their advanced work by habits acquired in undergraduate teaching. A few such men will always be welcome in any true university and will give to its advanced work new inspiration and power.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1923

In a commercial sense it is true that the higher and finer scholarship does not pay. When measured by the standard of intellectual and spiritual values, on the other hand, few things bring richer reward than scholarship. Its possession is a constant source of joy and satisfaction, and the power which invisibly flows from it is of untold benefit to all men. It is a chief function of a university to seek out scholarship, to advance scholarship, to reward scholarship. Two strong obstacles in reaching these ends are the pressure for immediate practical results and mediocrity. It is hard to say which of the two injures scholarship more. Pressure for immediate practical results brings in its train intellectual slovenliness, superficiality, haste and appalling waste. It is contemptuous of scholarship with its calmness, its self-possession, its thoroughness and its patience. In similar fashion mediocrity wars upon scholarship. It mistakes footnotes for learning, lack of imagination for logic and security for consequence. The scholar works always in an intellectual space of not less than three dimensions, while both the seeker for immediate practical results and mediocrity work constantly in flat-land. It is debatable, and often debated, to what extent the present-day student is interested in scholarship. He is certainly curious for information, and by reason of his defective training is often surprised by the obvious and astonished at the well known. A ruling theory of education which, like the boll weevil in the cotton plant, has attacked the elementary and secondary schools at their most sensitive point, and has in large part destroyed, for the time being, their intellectual and moral productiveness, must bear a

* Report for 1921-22, pp. 22-27.

heavy share of responsibility for these conditions. The clatter and clamor of our contemporary life and the unwillingness or inability of any considerable number of men really to think on any subject, are of course reflected to a greater or less extent in academic classrooms and laboratories. Henry George's familiar story of the child who was surprised to find that her father's garden was part of that surface of the earth of which she was studying in her geography class, is paralleled by the daily experience of thousands who are unable to see any relation between what they themselves are doing at the moment and the larger and more lasting movements in the opinion and social organization of mankind. He only can be a philosopher who, whatever his school, can view himself and his surroundings as Spinoza's phrase has it, *sub specie aeternitatis*.

Columbia University has long made and is daily making a strong effort on behalf of scholarship. It aims to give its scholars both instruments and opportunity with which to work, and it never ceases to endeavor to add to the number of its productive scholars by drawing upon every possible source of supply. It is trying still more completely to set free its scholars for scholarship by disciplining the advanced or graduate student in self-direction and self-help, and by lessening his demands upon the older scholars for constant lectures and personal instruction. The American graduate student has for the most part been assisted to form the very bad habit of regarding himself as in the same relation to his university teacher that the schoolboy bears to his schoolmaster. For this attitude of intellectual timidity, planlessness and dependence it is desirable to substitute as quickly as may be an attitude of self-reliance, self-control and independent scholarly endeavor. Lectures to graduate students may well be reduced to a minimum, and for them be substituted seminars, discussions, personal conversations and criticism of individual work. It is by means such as these that the younger generation of scholars is to be recruited and sent on its way in glad confidence that there are new facts and new truths to be discovered

and tested, and that it will be a life's satisfaction to take part in the discovery and the testing. Mathematics, physics and chemistry, with their new and astounding revelations of the power of mind to pursue the constituents of matter into the hidden recesses of the infinitesimal where energy is found to continue to manifest itself with incredible velocity, should prove a stimulus to human imagination quite equal to poetry, letters and the fine arts. It may be that the period through which we have been passing is but a little understood preliminary to a new and tremendous outburst of intellectual, aesthetic and moral achievement. The twentieth century awaits the awakening call of a great spiritual leader such as the thirteenth century had in St. Dominic and St. Francis. The modern world began with a Renaissance that represents in many fields the high water mark of human conquest. May it not be possible that a second Renaissance, wholly different in form and in content but equally beneficent in its results, is in the making?

It is certainly true that the world is not standing still. Its present state of ferment indicates change of some sort, perhaps violent change. It must, therefore, be on the point of going either forward or backward. Professor John Burnet in his thought-provoking Romanes lecture on "Ignorance" remarks that Dark Ages have generally followed after periods when knowledge of a sort was more widely distributed than ever. He adds that so far as we can see the decay has always set in at the top, and thinks it not remarkable that some who are skilled in reading the signs of the times should just now feel uneasy. It would appear to be logically possible to conceive the present active changes as backward moving instead of as forward moving; but when mankind as a whole comes to that point of view one would not wish to be responsible for the results not alone to our civilization but to our lives. The notion of a Renaissance, or at least the hope of a Renaissance, is more comforting and more comfortable.*

* Report for 1922-23, pp. 10-13.

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

The notable report of the Dean of the Graduate Faculties contains statements of fact and of reflection which should be carefully read and pondered not only at this University but wherever endeavor is making to have the true university spirit prevail. There can be no question that a large part of the enrollment at American universities is the result of artificial stimulation by various more or less unreasonable rules and regulations of boards of education and governing bodies of institutions of higher learning. The insistence that, whether or no, a teacher ambitious for advancement must be able to produce a degree of Master of Arts or even Doctor of Philosophy is alarming because of its unreasonableness and its unhappy influences. This insistence can only result in multiplying many times over the number of graduate students at American universities, while bringing them to look upon their university residence and work as a penance to be endured or a series of forms to be gone through with as patiently, yet as rapidly, as possible. Such artificial rules and regulations tend to destroy that free university spirit, that joy in learning and that zeal for inquiry which are the making of a university spirit which is genuine and enduring. Moreover, the setting of graduate students to separate minor, even to minute and inconsequent tasks, with the notion that these are in some mysterious way a training in methods of research, too often blunts the edge of the whole university undertaking. A master scholar, with his own grand and well-conceived problem before him for solution, will, if he is wise, associate closely with himself a group of advanced students who, first as hewers of wood and drawers of water, and afterwards as associates and fellow laborers, will light their lamps of scientific and scholarly endeavor at his altar and will gain the inexhaustible stimulus which comes not only from mere training in method, but from association with the rich and fine guiding personality. They will gain the inestimable benefit

of being co-laborers with their master upon a great central, dominating task, to which they will always look back with satisfaction and admiration. There are still living American scholars who tell with enthusiasm of their experiences a long generation ago in the laboratory of Professor Huxley. There are still others who worked in a different field with Du Bois-Reymond, and yet others who never tire of recounting what was done for their intellectual life by Curtius in Classical Archaeology, by Vahlen in Latin Literature, by Klein in Mathematics, by T. H. Green in Philosophy, or by Paulsen in Education. Contacts and associations like these are the very essence of university life and university work.

Then, too, there is that tendency which appears to be well-nigh irresistible, to specialize so severely during years of graduate residence as to make the student blind and deaf to the wonderful appeal of intellectual color and form which surround him on every side. To have passed through a university and never to have heard or even seen any one of its dozen greatest ornaments whose field of major interest is not that in which a particular student is working, is for him a loss of opportunity which is nothing short of tragic.

It is quite true that the doors of the university should swing open before the mature, the eager, the ambitious and the well-prepared even though the numbers of such be large, but it is also true that the university's best effort should be spent upon those who are sincerely and undividedly in search of truth, and who with free and open mind seek to gain an understanding not only of some isolated bit of human knowledge, but also of the relation in which that isolated bit stands to all knowledge, as well as comprehension of the part it plays in the universe of which it is at best so insignificant and so minute a part.*

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 20-21.

POLICIES OF ADMISSION

NOVEMBER 3, 1913

Experience here at Columbia, which is now much more extensive and more varied than elsewhere in this country, indicates pretty clearly that a chief problem in the matter of graduate instruction is psychological rather than academic in character. It is the problem of trying to divorce the generous and fruitful pursuit of higher studies from the less worthy purpose of gaining a higher degree. In order to obtain a higher degree it is, of course, necessary for any given candidate to comply precisely with a series of announced rules and regulations. Too often formal compliance with these rules and regulations becomes an end in itself and displaces in the mind of the student the higher motives which should stimulate to scholarly endeavor. When this happens, graduate study becomes technical, formal, and mechanical, and its chief advantages disappear. It must be the unceasing task of the administrative officers and of the Faculties and committees whose concern is directly with graduate students so to administer and so to legislate as to meet this difficulty in every possible way. To do this successfully will not be easy. Human vanity and the larger public opinion are both greatly pleased with the baubles that constitute academic decorations. If these academic decorations come naturally and easily as the mark and reward of genuine scholarly work accomplished in a generous and unselfish spirit, then they are not only not harmful, but beneficial. On the other hand, when they become an end in themselves the situation of graduate study is well-nigh hopeless.

Another serious limitation upon the effectiveness of provisions already made in this country for graduate study is the widespread tendency to regard fellowships and scholarships not primarily as a reward for excellence or for unusual promise, but rather as a means of helping the poor student to meet the expenses of his education. One who recalls the long list of winners and holders of great scholarships and prizes at the Universities of

Oxford and Cambridge realizes how much those scholarships and prizes have accomplished in singling out and taking note of youthful promise that afterward came to great distinction. We shall be on the right road to do the same thing in the United States when we administer our fellowships, scholarships and prizes so as to reward excellence and promise wherever they are found, and not simply to help the struggling student, who may be morally deserving but intellectually third-rate, to his feet.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

Much remains to be done to put the graduate student in right relation to his own personal work at the University and to the University as a whole. The graduate student brings with him to Columbia an undergraduate tradition, and he usually looks upon attendance on lectures and routine instruction as inseparable from his University work — in fact, as its most essential element. He looks upon himself, and is too often looked upon and treated, as if he were merely an elongated undergraduate. As a matter of fact, he is and should be something quite different. Most of his time should be spent in private reading and study under the personal direction and criticism of those teachers whom he has chosen as guides and as friends. The lectures which he attends should be ancillary only to his own carefully organized work and should in no case be his main dependence in preparing himself for his advanced degree — or, if he be so fortunate as not to be a candidate for an advanced degree, in making the most of the rich opportunities that the University has to offer. The graduate student is old enough and mature enough to take a large part in his own education. He should see as much as possible of the professors of his choice and should be brought closely in touch with their personalities and their views of life as well as with their stores of scholarly knowledge and their skill in philosophical and scientific interpretation. He should, however, put the methods and the point of view of the undergraduate behind him and re-

* Report for 1912-13, pp. 24-25.

member that he has now come to a stage of development where much initiative, much self-direction, and much self-criticism are justly expected of him. Too often the graduate student is grievously over-taught. He hears too many lectures, he spends too many hours in following the routine of fixed courses of instruction. What he should have is more close contact with rich and fine personalities and more inducement to self-direction and self-mastery. He should be made to feel that he has passed beyond the period of tutelage, and that he has joined a company of scholars as one of its junior members, with much to learn, no doubt, but yet to do his independent work as the companion and associate of his chosen advisers and guides.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

As the University grows and extends its activities and as its service to the public is so richly multiplied, it is of vital importance that it lay increased and steadily increasing emphasis upon the work of research. It is this which marks off the true university from the *polytechnicum* or from the merely philanthropic organization of higher education. So long as the spirit of research dominates the university and is its major interest, just so long will its teaching be kept fully alive and just so long will its public service be real and vitalizing. To organize and to stimulate research, therefore, is the university's chief business. The effect of a sound and well-considered policy in this regard will be felt in every part of the university's activities, however remote that part may, at first sight, appear to be from this central point.

Were the organization of research and the oversight of candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy to be provided for . . . then there would remain the question of how best to provide for the great army of graduate students who have neither the desire nor the competence to go forward in the work of serious investigation, but who do wish to profit by one or more years of graduate study and who are desirous of obtaining a mas-

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 18-19.

ter's degree as an evidence that they have pursued such study successfully.

There are two ways in which the hundreds and thousands of students of this type may be cared for:

They might be divided into groups according to their subjects of major interest and assigned to the care of that Faculty to which the subject of major interest would naturally belong. Were this plan followed then graduate students of Mining or of Engineering would be under the charge of the Faculty of Applied Science; graduate students of Medicine would be under the charge of the Faculty of Medicine; graduate students of Private Law would be under the charge of the Faculty of Law; graduate students of Political Science, Philosophy and Pure Science would be under the charge of those Faculties as at present. The University Council would remain in this, as in all other matters, the upper legislative body and its concurrence would be required to make valid any proposed change of general policy in regard to students of this type. This is perhaps the more simple and economical of the two possible methods of procedure. The alternative would be to create out of the membership of the Faculties concerned an administrative board to care for students of this kind and to supervise and direct their work. Such a solution of the problem seems, however, to introduce unnecessary complications and to multiply machinery where no multiplication is necessary.

It is important that governing principles in regard to these matters be decided upon without undue delay. The whole University is familiar with the outlines and general conditions of the problems involved, and it ought to be possible within the compass of the present academic year, to agree upon and to adopt a simple system of organization that will meet the needs of what has become a very important and a very pressing situation.

Should some such plan as that above outlined be adopted, it is to be hoped that there will be attracted to the University in the near future an increasing number of advanced students well

trained in methods of research, who have already obtained the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and who also have or could be given the leisure for quiet, patient and disinterested investigation. They would have no thought of degrees or other academic ornamentations, and they would be free from all of the usual academic requirements as to attendance upon courses of instruction, laboratory work or seminars. Their time would be their own to be employed in scientific and scholarly investigation in such directions and by such methods as they might themselves prefer and adopt, or as might be indicated to them by the guiding professor with whom they were associated or under whose direction they wished to work.

Were the University to include in its membership a hundred men and women of this type, the number and importance of investigations being carried on would rapidly increase, for such a group of advanced workers would not only stimulate the various departments of instruction with which their own work was associated, but the whole body of graduate students would feel the benefit of their presence and example. Out of such advanced workers as these it might be practicable to create a body of *Docents*, whose relation to the University would be similar to that of the *Privat-Dozenten* in the German universities. Work such as this would afford an invaluable training ground for future university professors, and those who were so fortunate as to attain distinction would be speedily invited to teaching and research positions in other universities and scientific institutions.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

The Dean of the Graduate Faculties indicates in his report a chief difficulty in the way of the better and more extensive organization of research. He points out that the colleges and technical schools from which the graduates come do not, as a rule, give a kind of education which makes for scholarship of high character. The result is that college and technical school graduates too often come with a desire to enter upon graduate studies

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 31-34.

without having first mastered the preliminary and readily accessible data of the subject of their choice. For this reason the Graduate Faculties are frequently unable to organize their work as they would most like to do or to get the best results from the courses that are conducted. The Graduate Faculties have been steadily sifting the students who come to them, and now require very distinct evidence of competence to proceed to a higher degree before admitting a student to register as a candidate for such degree. They still need to sharpen the distinction between undergraduate and graduate work, between undergraduate and graduate methods, for it is as wasteful and harmful to instruct a Freshman or a Sophomore by those methods that are suitable to graduate and professional students as it would be to attempt to guide the latter by methods which produce good results with Freshmen and Sophomores.

These Faculties should also be aided and encouraged to develop special institutes for research, such as the Psychological Institute and the Oriental Institute that are described in the report of the Dean. The organization and equipment of these institutes are a natural and almost necessary step in the development of the University's instrumentalities for research. Coöperation in research between the University and other organized bodies should be encouraged; and in particular the University should make sure that it neglects no opportunity to serve the public by directing its researches toward the solution of pressing problems in agriculture, in economic and industrial life, and in the conduct of public undertakings.*

PROBLEMS OF GRADUATE INSTRUCTION

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

In common with other American universities, the graduate work at Columbia suffers somewhat from the multiplicity of highly specialized courses offered to graduate students by the several departments. This policy is in marked contrast to that

* Report for 1919-20, pp. 31-32.

which has so long approved itself in the German universities. There can be but little doubt that the interests of the graduate students, as well as the economic interests of the University itself, would be best met by providing in each department a substantial course of graduate instruction given three or four times each week, rather than a half-dozen specialized courses given once or even twice weekly throughout the academic year. The cost to the University would be less if the German system were followed, and the educational advantage to the graduate student would be greater. Our graduate schools are resorted to by ambitious students from all parts of the country with wide disparity in their intellectual equipment and previous training, and the influence and stimulus that they most need are those which would be given by a severe course in their chosen field, in which an introduction into the scientific survey of the subject would be combined with training in scientific method. By alternating such substantial graduate courses, or by arranging them in a cycle or series, a given department could always have one such course in operation. Such specialized courses as were absolutely necessary might then be added to this foundation work of the department and be given less frequently than now. At present we are suffering, both educationally and financially, from too many highly specialized and minute courses of graduate instruction. The program of graduate study announced by any one of a half-dozen departments illustrates this point.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

In the Annual Report for 1911 standards of graduate work were discussed at some length for the purpose of making clear the significance which ought to attach to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. If work for that degree is to be confused with preparation for teaching in secondary school or college, then the sooner the degree is abandoned the better. If, however, it is not too late to insist upon reserving it for genuine accomplishment

* Report for 1907-8, pp. 13-14.

and exhibition of power in some special field, after a rigorous course of training and discipline, then the degree can be made an even more valuable aid to the development of scholarship in America than it is at present. It is vitally important that the highest possible standard of attainment shall be insisted upon for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, and that the piece of work supposedly original in character on which the degree is awarded, shall in every case be published to the world of scholars. If the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is deprived of this support, it will speedily tend to become a mere degree in course, to be awarded annually to scores, or even hundreds, of candidates, for the more or less perfunctory accomplishment of a stated amount of academic routine. The publication of the dissertation, however, offering as it does the whole performance of the candidate to the critical judgment not only of the whole University, but to that of scholars everywhere, is of the utmost importance. The argument that this is expensive for the candidate is not a weighty one. The degree of Doctor of Philosophy is not a natural right. There is no reason why this degree should not cost something, and the candidate may, if he chooses, give ample evidence of his attainment and power in a piece of work that may be printed and published at a relatively small expense. There is a growing tendency to make dissertations submitted for the Doctorate in Philosophy too long and too elaborate. The fact that it costs something to print these dissertations is of itself a healthful check upon prolixity and a mere quantitative output. So long as it is the aim of the University to choose and to train each year a few specially competent men and women for productive scholarship, the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is valuable as an indication of the measure of success that the University attains in this regard.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

The seeds of an important movement toward increased University effectiveness and economy of men and resources are con-

* Report for 1911-12, pp. 30-32.

tained in the report of Dean Woodbridge. What he says as to the value of the work of the Joint Committee of the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy and Pure Science on Instruction is perfectly true; but the value of the observation is not so much as a record of what has been done as it is an indication of what more there is to do. Those of us who were concerned a generation ago in the formation and development of the three Faculties that have controlled the advanced and research work of the University in other than professional and technical subjects are not unnaturally wedded to the plans of our own making; but the time has come to face squarely the question whether the University has not outgrown the forms of organization that were adequate a quarter century ago and whether it is not now desirable, while preserving for historic purposes such names and associations as may seem desirable, to constitute a single small body selected by the teaching staff as a whole and responsible to it, and to give it most of the power of legislation which the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy and Pure Science now possess under the Statutes. It would, for example, be entirely practicable to select an Administrative Board of Graduate Study of fifteen members — five to be chosen from and by each of the groups which now constitute the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy and Pure Science — which Administrative Board should succeed to nearly all the present powers and duties of the Faculties. Under such conditions the three Faculties named would need to meet but once or twice in each year, unless called together on some special occasion, and then for the general discussion of educational interests and problems and for the selection of those who were to represent them on the Administrative Board of Graduate Study for the academic year next following. If a step like this were taken it would reduce at once burdensome attendance upon meetings where chiefly routine business is transacted. It would permit the discontinuance of numberless committee meetings, and it would provide a basis for that effective, responsible control of policy which Dean Woodbridge so earnestly asks for.

Under existing conditions, every piece of work dealing with legislation relating to the higher degrees and candidates therefor must be done over at least twice, and sometimes even five or six times, by bodies having either partial or concurrent jurisdiction. The present academic year ought to see this problem solved and satisfactory provision made for carrying out the recommendations and suggestions of Dean Woodbridge.

It has been frequently pointed out in these Annual Reports that the necessary tendency in the case of faculties having a large membership is to leave everything to administrative officers and committees and to reduce the Faculty meeting to a mere formal and routine confirmation of what has been done or recommended. If an Administrative Board of not to exceed fifteen members were chosen annually to take over the present business of the so-called Graduate Faculties, it would be both large enough to be representative and small enough to invite and to promote close discussion of novel or doubtful subjects.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

Under the patient guidance of Dean Woodbridge, supported by the Joint Committee on Instruction of the non-professional Graduate Faculties, steady and on the whole satisfactory progress is making in the better organization and conduct of graduate instruction and research. It is no small task to disentangle the confusions that have arisen in the American student mind as to graduate work, particularly that which involves the distinction between it and undergraduate study. A surprisingly large number of graduate students are slow both to realize and to accept the full measure of freedom which a well-organized graduate school affords. Doubtless the close organization of Departments, and in lesser degree even the distinction between Faculties, stand in the way of the most economical and the best-ordered plans for graduate study. These obstacles are to be overcome by increased coöperation between Departments and Faculties and by

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 16-17.

1 willingness to surrender Departmental or Faculty prestige or aggrandizement in the interest of the larger University good. Steps that have recently been taken to distinguish between graduate residence and successful candidacy for a higher degree are wholly commendable. As this distinction becomes increasingly clear to both teachers and taught, the University will add to its usefulness and its higher degrees will be awarded on still more satisfactory terms than at present.

The unhappy lecture system imported bodily from the German universities of forty or fifty years ago is largely responsible for duplication of effort, for waste of time, and for dissipation of energy on the part of graduate students. This is particularly true in those too numerous cases where the lecture is used to convey not inspiration but information. The teacher who has nothing to give in his lectures but information has no just claim on public support and should be required to give way to the printed page. Graduate work in non-laboratory subjects may well take a leaf out of the book of those teachers who are successful in directing research laboratories. In the best of these laboratories, the work of each advanced student is adjusted to his individual capacity and interests, and he is guided in it so that he may become an independent worker as soon as possible. There are well-known cases in which university teachers of non-laboratory subjects have been equally successful in guiding and inspiring their students and in leading them along the paths of independent study and inquiry. This can never be accomplished by the lecture system, least of all by the carefully written lecture which is used as a vehicle for conveying information and read substantially unchanged from year to year. A printed syllabus or outline that is made the basis for prescribed reading and for lectures of interpretation, offers the best possible method of laying the foundation for graduate work. Beyond this, the lecture has no place and should be given up for personal conferences, for discussions, and for that close criticism of the student's own work which is the essence of a well-organized seminar. Particularly must the last

vestiges be removed of the notion that a higher degree is to be had by spending so many sessions in residence, or by attending so many courses of instruction, or by paying fees of the statutory amount. Where any of these matters are not in satisfactory condition, the responsibility rests directly upon the University Council or one of the Faculties. Theirs is the full power to act and to remedy.*

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 36-38.

XIV

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

ADMISSION TO PROFESSIONAL STUDY

OCTOBER 6, 1902

THIS policy [of basing admission to professional schools on a four-year undergraduate curriculum], however, does not pass unchallenged. It has recently been criticized and opposed in a cogent and noteworthy argument by President Hadley of Yale University in his annual report for the year 1901-2, on the grounds (1) that it tends to make the professions exclusive in a bad sense, (2) that it leads to a remodeling of the college course to meet the needs of intending professional students, which remodeling is at least a doubtful experiment, and (3) that it establishes an unfortunate distinction between the universities which require a bachelor's degree as a condition of admission to the professional schools and those which make no such requirement. This policy is also criticized and opposed by many intelligent persons, trusted leaders of public opinion, not university teachers or administrators, who are impressed by the fact that the whole tendency of our modern educational system is to prolong unduly the period of preparation or studentship, with the result that an increasing number of young men are held back from active and independent participation in the practical work of life until they are nearly, or quite, thirty years of age. In the face of such objections as these it is obvious that we at Columbia must consider carefully the probable social and educational effects of the policy upon which we have entered.

The questions raised in the discussion of this policy are to be decided, it seems to me, from the standpoint of the duty of the University to the public and to its own educational ideals. Two interests are immediately at stake: the standards of professional study in a university, and the place of the American college in

the higher education of the twentieth century. I doubt whether the two interests can be separated in any adequate consideration of the subject.

President Eliot of Harvard University impressively set forth the responsibilities and the opportunities of the learned professions in his address at the Installation ceremonies on April 19 last, when he said:

It is plain that the future prosperity and progress of modern communities is hereafter going to depend much more than ever before on the large groups of highly trained men which constitute what are called the professions. The social and industrial powers, and the moral influences which strengthen and uplift modern society are no longer in the hands of legislatures, or political parties, or public men. All these political agencies are becoming secondary and subordinate influences. They neither originate nor lead; they sometimes regulate and set bounds, and often impede. The real incentives and motive powers which impel society forward and upward spring from those bodies of well-trained, alert, and progressive men known as the professions. They give effect to the discoveries or imaginings of genius. All the large businesses and new enterprises depend for their success on the advice and coöperation of the professions.

With such an ideal as this held up before the student of law, of medicine, of divinity, of teaching, of architecture, or of applied science, what standard of excellence shall the university require of him when he enters upon his professional studies? Three answers seem to be possible: The university may require (1) the completion of a normal secondary school course of four years, and so put admission to the professional and technical schools on a plane with admission to college, or (2) the completion of the present college course of four years, or (3) the completion of a shortened college course.

When weighing the advantages and disadvantages of these several lines of action, it should be borne in mind that a uniform policy on the part of all universities in dealing with this question is not necessary and may not be desirable. We are directly concerned with the question so far as it concerns the duty and the interest of Columbia; but the universities having different social

and educational needs to meet, and somewhat different ideals to labor for, may be wise in reaching a conclusion quite different from that which most commends itself to us. This consideration seems to me to meet the third of President Hadley's objections already referred to. Furthermore, the universities do not control admission to the practice of the professions, and it is not in their power, as it is certainly not their wish, to shut out from his chosen profession any competent person whatever his training or wherever it has been had. If the standards of professional study required by the universities are higher than the minimum fixed by law, no one will attend a university for professional study unless its standards appeal to him and unless he hopes to find ultimate gain by conforming to them at some expense of both time and money. On the other hand, if the universities make the minimum standards fixed by law their own — and only by so doing can they avoid discriminating against someone — then they seem to me to have abdicated their functions as leaders in American intellectual life. The result would quickly be seen, I am sure, in the falling off of popular favor and support. These facts appear to meet the first of President Hadley's objections. His second objection involves a discussion of the significance of the college course, a subject which I shall consider in its proper place.

Columbia University cannot be satisfied with a requirement of only secondary school graduation for admission to the professional and technical schools for several reasons:

1. Such students at 17 or 18 years of age (or, as should be the case, at 16 or 16½ years) are too immature to carry on a severe course of professional study with profit.
2. When such students predominate, or form a large proportion of the total number attending any given professional school, the teaching deteriorates and the instruction tends to become either superficial or unduly long drawn out and wasteful of time.
3. Other institutions in various parts of the country afford the fullest opportunity for students who are compelled to remain satisfied with the shortest possible preparation for the practice of

a profession, and Columbia would not be justified in using its funds merely to add to a provision which is already ample. Columbia offers the most generous assistance to students who are able and willing to meet its standards and who need help in order to carry on their studies, but is not willing to lower those standards at the cost of social and educational effectiveness.

4. Secondary school graduates, however well taught, are necessarily without the more advanced discipline in the study of the liberal arts and sciences and without that wider outlook on the world of nature and of man which it is the aim of the college to give. It is our hope and wish that those who hold professional or technical degrees from Columbia University will be not only soundly trained in their chosen professions, but liberally educated men as well. No stress is laid upon the college degree as a mere title, but it is held to stand, in the vast majority of cases, for greater maturity of mind and broader scholarship.

5. For Columbia University to admit students to the professional and technical schools upon the same terms as those by which admission to the College is gained, would be to throw the weight of our influence against college education in general and against Columbia College in particular. After a few years, no student who looked forward to a professional career would seek admission to Columbia College, or to any other, except those who had ample time and money to spare.

On the other hand, while I hold a secondary school education to be too low a standard for admission to professional study at Columbia University, personally I am of opinion that to insist upon graduation from the usual four-years' college course is too high a standard (measured in terms of time) to insist upon, and an unsatisfactory one as well. . . .

My objections to making graduation from a four-years' college course a prerequisite for professional study at Columbia University are mainly two:

1. I share the view, already alluded to, that the whole tendency of our present educational system is to postpone unduly the

period of self-support, and I feel certain that public opinion will not long sustain a scheme of formal training which in its completeness includes a kindergarten course of two or three years, an elementary school course of eight years, a secondary school course of four years, a college course of four years, and a professional or technical school course of three or four years, followed by a period of apprenticeship on small wages or on no wages at all.

2. Four years is, in my opinion, too long a time to devote to the college course as now constituted, especially for students who are to remain in university residence as technical or professional students. President Patton of Princeton University voiced the sentiments of many of the most experienced observers of educational tendencies when he said that: "In some way that delightful period of comradeship, amusement, desultory reading, and choice of incongruous courses of what we are pleased to call study, which is characteristic of so many undergraduates, must be shortened in order that more time may be given to the strenuous life of professional equipment." For quite twenty years President Eliot has advocated this view and in arguments which have seemed to me unanswerable, under the conditions existing at Harvard, has urged that the degree of Bachelor of Arts be given by Harvard College after three years of residence.* At Columbia, and elsewhere, the practice of counting a year of professional study as a substitute for the fourth or Senior year of the college course has in effect established a three-years' college course for intending professional and technical students. The degree has been withheld until a year of professional study has been completed, in deference to tradition rather than from sound educational principle. In this way new conditions have been met without the appearance of shortening the college course. While

* After this report was in type it was announced that hereafter the degree of A.B. will be conferred by Harvard College upon students who complete the requirements for the degree in three years at once and without an additional year's delay, as heretofore. Somewhat similar announcements have also been made by the University of Pennsylvania and by Brown University.

the policy hitherto pursued in this regard was justified as a beginning toward a readjustment of the relations between the College and the professional and technical schools, it is hardly to be upheld as a final solution of the problems presented. From my point of view it is open to criticism in that it (1) shortens the college course without appearing to do so, (2) divides the interest of the student in a way that is satisfactory neither to the college nor to the faculties of the professional schools, and (3) fails to give the full support to a college course of purely liberal study which is so much to be desired.

There remains a third line of action, namely, that of basing admission to the professional and technical schools of the University upon a shortened course in Columbia College or its equivalent elsewhere. This I believe to be the wisest plan for Columbia University to adopt, as well as the one whose general adoption would result in the greatest public advantage.

One consideration of vital importance appears to have been overlooked in the numerous discussions of this whole matter, and that is the fact that there is no valid reason why the college course should be of one uniform length for all classes of students. The unnecessary assumption of the contrary view has greatly complicated the entire question, both in the public and in the academic mind. It must be remembered that for the intending student of law, medicine, or applied science who goes to college, three or four additional years of university residence and study are in prospect after the bachelor's degree has been obtained. For the college student who looks forward to a business career, on the other hand, academic residence closes with graduation from college. For the latter class, therefore, the college course may well be longer than for the former. While two, or three, years of purely college life and study may be ample for the man who proposes to remain in the university as a professional or as a technical student, three, or even four, years may be desirable for him who at college graduation leaves the university, its atmosphere, its opportunities, and its influence, forever.

It must be remembered, too, that the four-years' college course is merely a matter of convention, and that there are many exceptions to the rule. The Harvard College course was at one time but three years in length, and the collegiate course at the Johns Hopkins University has been three years in length from its establishment. The normal period of residence for an undergraduate at both the English and the Scottish universities is three years. President Wayland of Brown University, who was in so many ways a true prophet of educational advance, devised a plan for a normal three-years' college course over half a century ago. The question is not so much one of the time spent upon a college course as it is one of the quality of the work done and the soundness of the mental and moral training given. The peculiar service which the college exists to perform may be done in one case in two years, in another in three, in another in four, in still another not at all. . . .

So long as there were no graduate schools, and therefore no genuine universities, in the United States, and when the bachelor's degree was the highest academic distinction to be gained in residence, it was sound academic and public policy to make the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Arts as high as possible. It was the only mark of scholarship that the colleges could give. As a result, the average age at graduation increased. Now, however, conditions have entirely changed. Nearly, or quite, one-half of the work formerly done in college for the degree of Bachelor of Arts is now done in the rapidly increasing number of secondary schools, particularly public high schools, and no small part of it is required for admission to college. This does not appear if the comparison be restricted to admission requirements in Greek, Latin, and mathematics; but it is clearly evident when the present admission requirements in English, history, the modern European languages, and the natural sciences are taken into account. The standard of scholarship in this country is no longer set by the undergraduate courses in the colleges or by the time devoted to them, but by the post-graduate instruction in the uni-

versities and by the requirements demanded for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

These being the undisputed facts, it would appear to be wise, and possible, to treat the length of the college course and the requirements, both in time and in accomplishment, for the degree of Bachelor of Arts from the standpoint of present-day needs and the largest social service.

In my opinion it is already too late to meet the situation by shortening the college course for all students to three years, although such action would be a decided step forward so far as the interests of intending professional and technical students are concerned. When President Eliot first proposed a three-years' course for Harvard College, the suggestion was, I think, a wise one. But in the interval conditions have changed again. If we at Columbia should be willing to go no farther than to reduce the length of the college course from four years to three, we should (1) find it impracticable both on financial and on educational grounds to require that course as prerequisite for admission to the Schools of Applied Science, and, possibly, to the School of Medicine, and (2) we should be unable to resist the pressure for further reconstruction and rearrangement that would be upon us before our work was completed and in operation. My own belief is that Columbia University will perform the greatest public service if it establishes two courses in Columbia College, one of two years and one of four years — the former to be included in the latter — and if it requires the satisfactory completion of the shorter course, or its equivalent elsewhere, for admission to the professional and technical schools of the University. By taking this step we should retain the College with its two years of liberal studies as an integral element in our system, shorten by two years the combined periods of secondary school, college, and professional school instruction, and yet enforce a standard of admission to our professional schools which, both in quantity and in quality, is on a plane as high as the Columbia degree of Bachelor of Arts of 1860, which was recognized as conforming to a

very useful standard of excellence. At the same time we should retain the four-years' course with all its manifest advantages and opportunities for those who look forward to a scholarly career, and for as many of those who intend to enter upon some active business after graduation as can be induced to follow it.

Under such a plan we should have in Columbia College four different classes of students: (1) those who were taking the shorter course of two years in preparation for a technical and professional course, and who would therefore look forward to a total university residence of five or six years; (2) those who were taking the shorter course of two years but without any thought of subsequent professional or technical study; (3) those who felt able to give the time necessary to take the longer course of four years before entering a professional or technical school; and (4) those who, as now, take the four-years' college course without any intention of technical or professional study. The second class of students would be a new and highly desirable class, and would be, for the most part, made up of earnest young men seeking a wider and more thorough scholarly training than the secondary school can offer, but unable to devote four years to that end. The third class of students would be able, by a proper selection of studies in the later years of their college course, either to enter a professional school with advanced standing or to anticipate some of the preliminary professional studies and to devote the time so gained to more intensive professional work. Undoubtedly many students who now take a four-years' undergraduate course with no professional or technical end in view would take the shorter course, and that only, but on the other hand numbers of students would come to college for a course of two years who when obliged to choose between a four-years' course and none at all are compelled to give up college altogether. The final result of the changes would certainly be to increase the total number of students taking a college course of one length or another.

The Dean of Columbia College is of the opinion that such a

shortened course of two years as is contemplated by this suggestion could readily be made to include all of the studies now prescribed at Columbia for candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. This shortened course would, therefore, take on something of the definitiveness and purpose which in many cases the rapid developments of recent years have removed from undergraduate study; for it goes without saying that no effort would be spared to make such a two-years' course as valuable as possible, both for intellectual training and for the development of character. The student would be a gainer, not a loser, by the change.*

OCTOBER 5, 1903

As the Schools grow and their problems become still more highly specialized, they need a kind of close and expert supervision which they do not get at present. The President cannot give it, for he has neither the special knowledges nor the time; the Deans do not give it, for they have neither the time nor the requisite authority. In short, it is now advisable, particularly in the professional schools of the University, that the office of Dean should be made a separate and a salaried one, and the incumbent given administrative authority similar to that enjoyed by the Deans of Barnard College and of Teachers College. A Dean's teaching, if any were possible, should be incidental to his executive work, and his first duty should be to study the problems, to improve the efficiency, and to promote the interests of the School under his care. Subject to the reserved or specified powers of the President, each Dean might well be, in effect, the responsible executive head of that part of the University to which he was assigned. The Deans, with the President, would then form a cabinet or administrative council, and the teaching force would be largely set free from the burden of executive work, so damaging to the ambition of the productive scholar. . . .

To give to the office of Dean this new authority and responsi-

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 30-38, 40-43.

bility would doubtless involve placing the Deans in new relations to the Trustees without altering their duties as administrative agents of the Faculties; but this would not be a difficult matter to adjust. The cost of the change would not be small, for we should want the services of the best and most experienced persons anywhere to be found to serve in these high posts. If the Deans were to be chosen from the present teaching staff, then certainly new appointments would have to be made to the Departments from which they were taken. But the cost would be returned to the University many times in the increased prosperity and efficiency of the several Schools.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

In my judgment an almost essential part of this educational plan [of limiting admissions to professional schools to those who have completed two years of college work] is the adoption of the recommendations that have been made by the Faculties of Law and of Applied Science, with the approval of the University Council, to establish the degree of Doctor of Law and that of Doctor of Engineering for advanced and research work in those fields. If we are to cut away students at the bottom, we must make appropriate provision for those at the top. The provision which the Faculties desire and which there is reason to believe that the students desire, is the institution of research degrees in Law and in Engineering, having value and significance similar to those which ought to attach to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The Faculties of Law and of Political Science on the one hand, and the Faculty of Applied Science on the other, are ready and anxious to make provision for the care and direction of students of an advanced type who wish to be trained as investigators. There is undoubtedly a feeling among the active practitioners of law and of engineering that these research degrees are unnecessary and unwise. This feeling seems, however, to leave out of account the actual facts as they present themselves in the

* Report for 1902-3, pp. 18-20.

daily administration of the University. It is doubtless true that men ought to be willing to follow a course of training for its own sake and without any regard to the reward or decoration to which it leads, but it is equally true that constituted as human nature now is they will not do so. It would be quite possible to extend the scope of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy so as to include the kind of instruction and research which it is proposed to offer to candidates for the degrees of Doctor of Law and Doctor of Engineering, but if this were done the inappropriateness of the title as a reward for such work would soon become apparent.

The objection that to follow the recommendation of the Faculties would be to turn out a body of men holding a high degree who had never had practical experience in their profession, does not seem to me quite relevant. These degrees are not intended to cover practical experience, although perhaps the plan for them might be extended so as to make some provision for this. The holder of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is not often very much of a philosopher, but then no one supposes that he is or need be. The same would be true of the holder of a degree of Doctor of Law or Doctor of Engineering as soon as these titles had become familiar. These degrees would not signify that those who received them were superlatively learned either in the law or in engineering, but simply that they had had a certain definite period of training of an advanced kind and that they had shown a certain sort of power to carry on inquiry and investigation which universities the world over usually reward with the degree of doctor.

Moreover, in neither case would the establishment of a new degree be involved. The degree of Doctor of Law is already given both in Europe and in this country, as is the degree of Doctor of Engineering. The Faculties of Law and of Political Science believe that the degree of Doctor of Law as now given in America is not wisely given or on a proper basis. They would rescue it from the condition in which it now is and place it upon

a high and dignified plane. Similarly the Faculty of Applied Science would regard the degree of Doctor of Engineering as it is regarded in Germany. They would fix for it a high standard of attainment, believing that thereby they would attract to Columbia only the highest and best qualified type of engineering student. It is my hope that fuller consideration of the policies involved in these proposals may yet lead to their approval in time to take effect before the beginning of another academic year.*

AIMS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

OCTOBER 6, 1902

In the professional and technical schools of the country the highest educational efficiency is constantly jeopardized by the habit of laying undue emphasis upon devices and matters of method to the neglect of fundamental principles which underlie any given technique or application of scientific theory. Devices and methods change with startling rapidity — in medicine and in electrical engineering, for example — and the student who has mastered only devices finds himself helpless under new conditions. On the other hand, the student who has carried away from his period of university residence a thorough grasp of the fundamental principles upon which the practice of his profession depends, will adapt himself easily to new methods and devices, and will, indeed, invent them.†

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

The time has come when Columbia College can and should offer to the Senior who wishes it a well-organized group of studies that will be as effective in preparation for business as are the studies in the professional schools for the careers to which they respectively lead. Of course, it will not be possible to make a successful business man through study of books, but it is not possible to make a successful lawyer or a successful physician by

* Report for 1911-12, pp. 35-37.

† Report for 1901-2, p. 25.

that method. This is no reason, however, why the future business man should not be trained and disciplined in those subjects of study which have a direct bearing upon the work in which he hopes to engage.

To accomplish this it will not be necessary to increase the complexity of the University organization or to found any new school or department. It will only be necessary for the Faculty of Columbia College to select and group together those courses of instruction in economics, in business law, in finance, in accounting, and in allied subjects already established in the University, which can be so organized and arranged as to make a strong appeal to the student who looks forward to business activity and to give him an excellent preparation for it. This is something to be undertaken in the immediate future with a view to answering effectively the objection, so often heard, that the American college, while accomplishing much in other directions, does nothing to prepare men of business for the work which lies before them or to open their eyes to the larger responsibilities and opportunities of business men.

In this group of courses there should be included one to present and to emphasize ethical principles in their applications both to ordinary business dealings and to the relations which exist between business and public policy. A mind quickened and informed on these subjects and taught to seek for the ethical as well as for the commercial and financial implications of a business proposal, would be a mind well trained to bear severe business responsibility under present-day conditions. Columbia College is in position to confer a new benefit upon the public and to offer a new opportunity to its students by organizing promptly and effectively a group of studies of this kind and by offering them to the Senior as an alternative to a year of law, of medicine, of engineering, of architecture, or of teaching, and in lieu of a general selection of courses in letters and in science.*

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 25-26.

EDUCATION IN LAW

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

It is nearly thirty years since the professorship in public law, which now bears the honored name of the late Samuel B. Ruggles, was established in the University. The object of that professorship was to lay the foundation here for those broad and catholic legal studies that would best promote legal scholarship and legal research. The object which the Trustees of that day obviously had in view was to treat the subject of law at Columbia University not only as a professional subject to be mastered for professional purposes, but as a branch of human learning to be studied for itself alone.

For reasons important in themselves, but bearing little or no relation to the merits of the plan that the Trustees so long ago formulated, there has been most unexpected and unfortunate delay in carrying this project to its legitimate conclusion. During the past year, however, a way by which the end originally aimed at might be attained, has been pointed out. The University Council, acting upon proposals submitted by the representatives therein of the Faculties of Law and Political Science, have recommended that a new curriculum be established under the joint control of the Faculties of Law and Political Science, to include studies in public as well as in private law, and to lead to an appropriate advanced degree. This proposal does not involve any disturbance of the professional curriculum in law leading to the degree of Bachelor of Laws. It provides that certain public law courses, which have heretofore been elective subjects for students proceeding to the degree of Bachelor of Laws, shall so remain; but side by side with this established curriculum it proposes to place a new curriculum covering the whole field of the science of law.

To enter upon this curriculum it is proposed that students shall possess not only the qualifications prescribed for admission to the Law School, but that, in addition, they must give evidence

of having had specially satisfactory training in Latin and in the modern languages; in ancient, mediaeval, and modern history; in economics and finance; and in logic and psychology. It is proposed that they shall then pursue for not less than three years a curriculum consisting in part of public law studies and in part of private law studies, and pass an examination and submit an approved dissertation similar in form and kind to those established in the case of candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

The purpose of these proposals is to encourage and broaden legal scholarship. Not a few teachers of law hold that such a broad and inclusive program of legal study as is proposed will, of itself, fit students for the practice of law quite as effectively as the older and narrower curriculum. Were the two curriculums to exist side by side the experience of a few years would soon settle this question definitely. Meanwhile, whatever may be the relation of a new curriculum and a new degree, like those proposed, to the practice of law as a profession, there can hardly be any doubt that they would serve the important purpose of developing scholarship in law and so train men in legal studies that they will be able to contribute to legal literature and to extend the boundaries of legal science. These important proposals, and a number of other matters which they suggest, will doubtless be finally passed upon in the near future.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1913

Signs are not wanting that public opinion in the United States will before long demand some additional restrictions upon admission to the Bar. The annual flood of young, half-trained and untrained lawyers has long been a public nuisance and is now becoming a public danger. Members of the Bar are in this country highly privileged persons, and the state is entitled to demand that those who are to enjoy such privileges shall subject themselves to a severe course of intellectual and professional training

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 24-26.

and to searching tests of character. The notion that it is democratic to make admission to the Bar easy is quite false. A democracy is as much entitled as is any other form of society to the best possible service and is under no obligations to be imposed upon by anything else. Under present conditions, graduates of the best university schools of law find themselves side by side with practicing lawyers whose keenness of apprehension does not conceal their intellectual poverty and whose insinuating address is too often a cloak for an unworthy character. Law has become the usual and well-trodden road to political preferment and to public office. No small part of the ills from which the body politic now suffers is due to this fact. It would be well enough, perhaps, if the nation and the several states were governed by genuine lawyers, but it is quite a different matter when they are governed so largely by men who are only members of the Bar.

Until very recently the Bar examinations in the State of New York have been so conducted as in effect to discriminate in favor of the more poorly prepared candidates. By recent action of the Court of Appeals, however, taken at the urgent request of leaders of the Bar and of representatives of the best schools of law, this condition has been brought to an end, and hereafter the Bar examinations in New York are to be controlled by principles whose soundness cannot be doubted.

The valuable results which promptly followed the searching inquiry made by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching into medical education and schools of medicine have led that organization to plan a similar inquiry into legal education and schools of law. It will be most helpful to hear from an unprejudiced and competent source just what the excellences and defects of our present system of legal education are and in what specific directions improvement in our law schools should be sought.*

* Report for 1912-13, pp. 41-42.

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

The School of Law has quickly recovered from the effects of the war and is facing its own peculiar problems with vigor and courage. Perhaps the most important matter to be dealt with is adequate provision for legal research and for building upon the foundations afforded by the School of Law a group of advanced students working in the history and philosophy of law, in the field of comparative jurisprudence, and in the interesting and important relations between law and modern economic and industrial development.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

The discussions that are now going on before the American Bar Association and the Bar Associations of various states as to legal education and the conditions of admission to the practice of law, are likely to have excellent and far-reaching results. That legal education has fallen into ruts and that it has never been subjected to critical examination from the standpoint of educational principle, is generally admitted. In fact, legal education has been treated too largely as a matter of law and too little as a matter of education.

The Bar itself is now acutely conscious of the imperfections of the existing system of training for the profession of law, and quite appropriately is leading the way toward improvement. Law schools in the United States have, ever since their establishment, been cast in a common mold. They have slavishly imitated the program of instruction and the methods of teaching followed in one or two of the older and more influential law schools, and there has been no such searching criticism of either the program of study or the methods of instruction as has been the case with letters and with science. Such critical examination should be no longer delayed, and Columbia University may render a distinct service by undertaking it. A great teacher does not of necessity

* Report for 1919-20, p. 34.

leave behind him a great school. If it be true that an institution is but the lengthened shadow of a man, one must be certain that the man who hopes to build an institution really casts a shadow. Many powerful personalities come and go in the fields of higher and professional education without contributing in any important way toward the permanent character and influence of the institutions which they have served. Imitation is no doubt sincerest flattery, but critical examination of proposed courses of action and of the principles upon which these rest is wiser than imitation.

In American life the profession of law plays so much more important a part than anywhere else in the world that the training and qualifications of lawyers are matters of increasingly large public interest and importance. That the conventional discipline of law students in private or municipal law is too narrow and too technical is now quite generally admitted. The study of Blackstone, some time since abandoned, had its advantages. Not infrequently under conditions as they now exist a practicing lawyer has had some years of professional experience before he gains a clear idea of the relations between law and ethics, economics, and social science. The whole field of public law has come to have new importance. There was a time when the counsel who raised a point of constitutionality was thought to be quibbling in defense of a weak case. He is now quite likely to be pleading for the protection of some one of the fundamentals of civil liberty. Administrative law, the study of which in the United States was begun at Columbia not much more than a generation ago, was at first thought to have had little application to American conditions; but as those conditions have rapidly changed, administrative law has come to have large and very practical importance in the daily life of the several states and of the nation. It would not be becoming to indicate in advance of a systematic and scholarly inquiry into all these subjects what changes might well be made in the existing program of legal

study; but that the inquiry should be made and prosecuted with vigor is quite certain.

The building up of research in the field of public and private law is an enterprise upon which the University should expend some organized effort. Since the establishment in 1880 of the School of Political Science, there has been in America a university faculty of the highest competence engaged in cultivating and promoting research in the field of public law, of economics, and of social science, as well as in training men for the public service, diplomatic and other. Many of those who have prosecuted these advanced studies have not been graduates in law, and it is important that a larger number of law graduates should be drawn into this field of interest and activity. The Bar needs such among its active members, and the universities need such among their teachers. The study of legal history and the comparative study of legal systems, as the writings of Maitland abundantly illustrate, offer most inviting fields of investigation, and the results are pretty certain to have quick and important practical application in the public life and the legal practice of today. It has been said that Edward Livingston, once Secretary of State of the United States and Minister to France, and Edward D. White, formerly Chief Justice of the United States, found a large part of their public usefulness and distinction to rest upon their profound knowledge of both the civil and the common law. If a good background of historical knowledge were given to the students of law, the number among them who would be drawn toward advanced study and research would almost certainly increase. These are problems not alone for the Faculty of Law but for the University as a whole.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1923

It was very strongly felt that no support should be given by Columbia University to the movement going on throughout the United States to multiply degrees, including advanced degrees

* Report for 1921-22, pp. 27-30.

of every sort and kind. For a generation past there has been a general breaking up in the field of higher education in the United States. New subjects of study are constantly introduced and their introduction is not infrequently accompanied by the suggestion that new and specific academic degrees be instituted to accompany them. The result has been to create the impression that higher degrees were not of particular distinction, and that they might be obtained without any marked scholarly achievement by patience and the payment of a designated fee. Columbia University has now taken a definite position in reference to this tendency and has planted itself upon historic ground which cannot be successfully attacked. The four historic university groups or faculties are those of law, medicine, theology and philosophy. In the early history of universities the degree of doctor was conferred in each of these fields and in these alone. In the field of law, while the degree of doctor is widely given in Europe as a degree in course, both in Great Britain and in the United States it has long been used chiefly as an honorary distinction. In the field of medicine the degree of doctor has most unfortunately been assimilated to and confused with that of bachelor, and is everywhere in the United States given on the completion of an undergraduate professional course in medicine and surgery. In the field of theology the degree of doctor has become, except on the Continent of Europe, almost exclusively an honorary degree, but as Columbia University maintains no faculty of theology that fact is for us a matter of indifference. In the field of philosophy, which represents the seven liberal arts as taught in the old universities, the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is maintained and grows stronger and of more consequence every year as the accepted designation of those who have successfully pursued advanced instruction and research in any part of this large and indefinite field. It is to be borne in mind that all the newer subjects of university study are in reality developments and subdivisions of the original seven liberal arts and, therefore, fall readily within the historic field of the Faculty of Philosophy.

The degree of Doctor of Philosophy, therefore, is the appropriate degree for award to those who have qualified themselves for it by advanced work and research, either in the older group of philosophical subjects, such as philosophy, letters and science, or in the newer groups, such as engineering, education, journalism and business.

Columbia University has long since become a complex institution of many-sided interests. Graduate students are coming to Morningside Heights from all parts of the world, and in time there is certain to be pressure to follow the unwise paths that have been taken elsewhere and to subdivide the degree of Doctor of Philosophy into a half-dozen or even a dozen highly specialized designations. It was the belief that it would be good judgment, and that it would add to the prestige and leadership of the University, to take a definite stand on this subject before the degree of Doctor of Law was authorized. It was these considerations which led to the action taken by the Trustees on March 5, 1923.

The Statutes of the University have now been amended to provide for the institution of the degree of Doctor of Law (Doctor Juris), to be conferred upon the completion of advanced work and research in the field of public and private law, on substantially the same terms and conditions as the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is now awarded to mark the completion of advanced work and research in other fields of knowledge. With a view to making certain that there should be no weakening or division of authority over the standards to be observed in awarding the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Law, a plan of administration was agreed upon by the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy, Pure Science and Law, and approved by the University Council, by which a single representative committee, with membership drawn from each of the four Faculties named, will, under authority of the University Council, have direct supervision of the work of the candidates for the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Law.

It is a matter for congratulation that a satisfactory conclusion

of a long and earnest discussion has now been reached. At no time has there been any difference of opinion as to the desirability, indeed the necessity, of stimulating advanced work and research in the field of public and private law. The only questions at issue have been those relating to the protection of the University's standards and ideals, and to the maintenance of those sound policies of organization and administration which have given the University its reputation for scholarship and its worldwide influence. Now that the question of the degree has been settled, it remains for the Faculties of Law and Political Science and for the University Council to use every effort to stimulate advanced instruction and research in the field of public and private law.

The recent literature of the law, whether judicial or academic, offers abundant evidence that new conceptions of legal process and legal determination are being developed in response to the rapidly changing political, economic and social conditions of modern life. The historical scholarship and power of interpretation of Maitland and the philosophical grasp and subtlety of Duguit, offer at once inspiration and example. The thoroughly grounded lawyer of the next generation must have a much firmer hold on economic law and economic fact than has seemed necessary in the past. He will have to be familiar not only with the decisions of the courts but with the recorded experiences of the economic and social life of modern peoples. In a hundred ways the ambitious student is beckoned to new fields of inquiry and investigation. It will be the task of the Faculties of Law and Political Science to see to it that the new opportunity which has been created be made use of to the full.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1926

It may be said without reservation that the Faculty of Law is today more effectively constituted and more abundant in promise, not only of educational effort but of scholarly research,

* Report for 1922-23, pp. 7-10.

than at any time since the School of Law was opened with much trepidation in 1858 under the direction of Professor Theodore W. Dwight. That brilliant and accomplished teacher himself doubted whether, in view of previous failures in New York, a school of law could be successfully established at Columbia, particularly since in other places the law schools were having a desperate struggle for existence. These institutions, then some eighteen in number, did not command a total enrollment that was more than two-thirds as great as that which is now found at the Law School of Columbia University alone. They played a very minor part in the preparation of candidates for admission to the Bar. These candidates were generally prepared, guild-fashion, and often admirably prepared, in the offices of their seniors and preceptors. As standards of admission to the Bar were steadily raised and as a better conception of legal scholarship gained ground, the law schools began to attract a larger number of students and to perform an increasingly important service. They have now for a long time been not only one of the most powerful elements in American university education, but seats and centers of every active and productive scholarly effort.

It was in 1870-71 that Professor Langdell of Harvard, by his discovery and application of the so-called case method of teaching law, revolutionized the procedure that had hitherto prevailed in practically every American law school. The academic teaching of the law up to that time had been almost exclusively expository and didactic, by far the major portion of the work being done by the teachers themselves. It was an immense and an accurate legal knowledge, coupled with a fascinating personality and an almost unrivaled power of clear exposition, that constituted the so-called Dwight method of teaching law. It was not so much the Dwight method as Dwight's method, and not susceptible of successful imitation with like results by personalities of lesser learning, lesser charm and lesser teaching power.

It is curious that the introduction of the case method of teaching law should have seemed to lawyers so revolutionary, for it

was nothing more or less than the application of the inductive system of study which was at that time making its rapid way into almost every department of learning. If the inductive method be a very important instrument of intellectual effort, it is also a very delicate one, and its use demands careful study and thorough understanding. Every teacher of law who undertakes to use it should first of all read with attention the classic analysis and exposition of induction contained in the Third Book of John Stuart Mill's *System of Logic*. Here will be found set out an illuminating account of how the mind proceeds from individual experiences to generalizations and what are the dangers and the pitfalls as the process proceeds. He will also discover that so soon as one undertakes to ascertain facts, not merely for purposes of scientific classification but for some practical end, a chief difficulty will be found to be one as to which the principles of induction will afford him no assistance.

That difficulty [says Mill] lies not in making his inductions, but in the selection of them; in choosing from among all general propositions ascertained to be true, those which furnish marks by which he may trace whether the given subject possesses or not the predicate in question. In arguing a doubtful question of fact before a jury, the general propositions or principles to which the advocate appeals are mostly, in themselves, sufficiently trite, and assented to as soon as stated: his skill lies in bringing his case under those propositions or principles; in calling to mind such of the known or received maxims of probability as admit of application to the case in hand, and selecting from among them those best adapted to his object. Success is here dependent on natural or acquired sagacity, aided by knowledge of the particular subject, and of subjects allied with it. Invention, though it can be cultivated, cannot be reduced to rule; there is no science which will enable a man to bethink himself of that which will suit his purpose. But when he has thought of something, science can tell him whether that which he has thought of will suit his purpose or not.

There is a warning in these weighty words to be taken to heart by him who would rather use a method of inquiry or of exposition than be used by it.

There is another point of highest importance that is often overlooked. The psychological order of learning and the logical

order of classifying and expounding are by no means always the same. The highest type of teacher uniformly subordinates the logical to the psychological order in presenting his subject to those immature and unfurnished minds which he is endeavoring to train. For example, when a navigator sets out upon a voyage, whether the seas be familiar or unknown, that for which he first asks is a chart. That chart is his constant reliance and dependence because it gives him the general setting or framework of every detail that is about to happen on the voyage which he has undertaken. The same applies, with greatest force, to the young student of the law. He needs first of all a chart, and that chart will indicate in a general way the relation of the law and its chief parts or divisions to those other interests and knowledges with which he has already become familiar. Here is the field of government, its organization and its functions; here is the field of the social sciences, their discoveries, their ordered knowledge and their interpretations; here is the field of economics with its massive array of carefully arranged facts and laws; here is the vast and complicated world of business with its own methods, its processes and its aims; and here is the domain of ethics with its survey of the principles, the moving forces and the ideals of human conduct. To show how each one of these is related to the others and how each and all are related to the law and the law to them, is to provide a chart for the young navigator on the high seas of jurisprudence, the existence of which would immensely facilitate his understanding of his voyage and his satisfaction in it. In other words, for the proper and best use of the inductive method there must be preparation and, indeed, unless induction, deduction and interpretation go together, there will be very little practical result of permanent value.

Sir John Herschel put the matter in a nutshell when he said, "The inductive and deductive methods of inquiry may be said to go hand in hand, the one verifying the conclusions deduced by the other; and the combination of experiment and theory, which may thus be brought to bear in such cases, forms an en-

gine of discovery infinitely more powerful than either taken separately."

There are signs on every hand that a larger conception of what is meant by the study of the law is making its way in the legal profession as well as among the judges and among the teachers and scholars of the law. The wide and distressing gap between membership of the bar and a knowledge of law must be closed. Some acquaintance with the statutes and decisions of a given jurisdiction and some familiarity with legal procedure, are a sorry substitute for genuine legal knowledge and training. When fifty years ago it was proposed to give statedly to the students of law in Columbia University instruction in public law, in constitutional history and in the principles of the social and economic sciences, there was a roar of dismay and disapproval which shook the institution to its foundations. What was prophecy fifty years ago at Columbia is fortunate promise now, and the Faculty of Law are of one mind in their deep concern for this development. They are ready and anxious to study it from every point of view, to gain a close and firm grasp upon the facts involved and to reform and liberalize the program of studies in the Law School so as to break down once and forever the old guild-like conception of the lawyer's training and field of intellectual interest.

A sarcastic humorist has said that our American laws are as good as the lawyers in our federal and state legislatures will permit them to be. Whatever measure of truth may lie behind this obvious sarcasm, it suggests a specific problem that lies ready for attack by and under the direction of such thoroughly competent legal scholars as constitute the group charged with legal instruction and research at Columbia.*

EDUCATION IN MEDICINE AND DENTISTRY

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

The steady improvement of the teaching at the Medical School during the past few years, the new and important additions to

* Report for 1925-26, pp. 29-33.

the staff of instruction, and the constant elevation of the standards of admission and graduation, have served only to emphasize how much remains to be done in order to put the Medical School upon a thoroughly satisfactory university basis. Within a short generation, the methods of medical instruction and research have been literally revolutionized. Equipment and facilities then quite unknown are now justly regarded as absolutely necessary. The haphazard relationship between medical school and hospital which has been quite common in the United States must give way, and at once, to a relationship that is precise, definite, and so secured and administered as to give to the medical school complete and permanent control of the hospital staff and of the facilities for clinical teaching which the hospital affords. The laboratory subjects must be newly provided for with buildings and equipment that are modern and adequate.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1912

The year, therefore, has been in no sense lost. It has, on the contrary, been very productive in results of a definite and helpful kind. The whole problem [amalgamation of the Medical School and Presbyterian Hospital] is now more clearly defined than ever before, and we are within measurable distance of knowing, not in a general estimate, but specifically, what it will cost to enable the University to carry out its part of the project.

Public opinion has moved rapidly during the past few years in regard to the interdependence of medical schools and hospitals. It is now pretty clear to all enlightened hospital managers that the mere care of the ill and suffering is only one-half of a hospital's business. The other half is to assist in the study of disease and in the better training of those upon whom is to devolve the responsibility for the prevention and cure of disease hereafter. It should be easier now than might have been the case a decade ago for the University to secure the funds necessary to make its contribution to the solution of these vitally important problems. . . . A hospital which does not aid in the advancement of medi-

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 30-31.

cal science by offering facilities for teaching and research is only half a hospital.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

A very serious problem in connection with medical teaching is its rapidly mounting cost. This has already become excessive, and public opinion is not likely long to sustain any scheme of medical education whose cost is so large. It is not difficult to find an explanation of this mounting cost. Just as education itself is the spoiled child of the state, so medical teaching is the spoiled child of education. It is thought unduly critical and unsympathetic to question the wisdom of any proposal to increase the sums called for to carry on systems of school, college and university education, and it seems similarly hard-hearted and unsympathetic to question any proposed expenditure for medical teaching.

Medical teaching is, however, in need of very severe critical examination on the part of those who have a sound knowledge of educational processes and educational experience. As a matter of fact medical education is about a half-century behind other forms of higher instruction. It is laboring with pretty much the same problems that engineering education labored with a generation or two ago, and usually without any reference whatsoever to the teachings of experience as to the solution of these problems. The ordinary medical school curriculum is a thing of shreds and patches and by no means a well-conceived organic unity based upon a clear-cut conception of the aim and scope of undergraduate medical instruction. The heads of departments in a medical school are too often treated as ruling princes and allowed a final authority which is not only harmful in itself but quite destructive of true coöperation between scholars engaged in carrying forward a common undertaking. All this is due perhaps to what may be described as the intellectual isolation of the medical profession. Physicians and surgeons are busy men. They are sub-

* Report for 1911-12, pp. 39-40, 42.

ject to call by night as well as by day, and their time is in no sense their own. As a result, their contacts are largely limited to men and matters related to their own calling and they often lose the advantage of the stimulus that would come from wider and more numerous contacts. It is essential that a medical school should be in immediate association with a hospital, but it is hardly less important that the medical school should be in closest association with the rest of the university. Teachers and students of medicine would profit greatly by daily contact and association with teachers and students in other fields. Could this relationship be established during the period of medical study it would go far toward breaking down that isolation of the medical profession which is now so common.

A first task is to lessen the rigidity of the departmental system, which is the relic of an outgrown sharpness of division between subjects that in reality are closely interrelated. A second is to overturn the existing curriculum and to substitute a well-considered and well-organized program of study in its stead; and a third is to develop and apply those well-known methods of teaching that will enable the medical school, without increasing its teaching staff, to care for a larger number of students than at present. The huge capital expense necessarily incurred in establishing and equipping a modern medical school cannot be defended if the number of students be limited to a few hundred. It is not practicable to include in a four-year course of medical study all the information which a medical practitioner will have need to use in the course of his after life. The young man or young woman who has just been granted the degree of Doctor of Medicine cannot be expected to stand where the experienced physician or surgeon stands at the end of a long career. The true aim of the medical school should be to give instruction in fundamental principles and methods, to bring the student in contact with realities, to train him in habits of observation and inference as to physiological and pathological phenomena, and to give him knowledge of where to look for the additional or specialized in-

formation that he may need before his own experience has sufficiently widened and deepened to bring it to him. Moreover, it must never be forgotten that the purpose of the medical school is to train physicians and not scientific investigators. It would be a sorry day for the public health and for the public satisfaction if the physician of large practical experience, wide human sympathy and keen insight into human nature were to yield his place to the expert with the microscope and the test-tube. The scientific aspects of medicine must not be permitted to override its human aspects. The medical school of tomorrow will be conceived of as a public service institution to promote the public health and to spread a knowledge of preventive medicine; training in the detection and cure of disease will then appear as an incident in this larger and finer program.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

The very thorough and searching study of this subject [dentistry], which has been made for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching by and under the direction of Dr. William J. Gies, Professor of Biological Chemistry in Columbia University, is already having its effect in attracting nation-wide attention to this subject. Dr. Gies makes it plain that while dentistry is now and for some time past has been an independent and closely organized profession, with about 50,000 practitioners in the United States and 3,200 in Canada, nevertheless its relationship to medicine and surgery is so close that it can and should be best carried on in intimate relation with them. No fewer than thirty-one American universities now maintain schools of dentistry, and it is clear that the future of this profession is substantially assured. Public interest cannot be served and the public health cannot be adequately protected unless and until the close relationship between dentistry on the one hand, and medicine and general surgery on the other, is clearly recog-

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 7-9.

nized, not only in medical and dental education, but in professional standards and professional conduct.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

The pride which the University has in the Medical Center and the steadily increasing effectiveness of its work may not be permitted to hide the fact that what has there been accomplished is but a beginning and not an end. Medical teaching has been revolutionized within a short generation, and long-standing programs of study and methods of work have been completely displaced. With the steady advance of the spirit of what is known as scientific medicine there may have been too great a tendency to overlook and depreciate the value of the old-fashioned so-called family physician or general practitioner of medicine. His qualifications were, and are, not only scientific knowledge, but those which come from temperament, from human insight and understanding, from kindness of heart, and from long experience with the ill and the suffering. No matter how strong may be the desire for specialized knowledge in the field of medicine and surgery, there will always be demand, and powerful demand, for the well-trained, wise, kindly, and experienced general practitioner. There are some fields in which instinct outruns knowledge, and dealing with human nature is one of these.

Moreover, only the smallest beginning has yet been made in the proper organization and development of graduate studies in medicine. So far as that subject is concerned, the medical schools are today about where the colleges were before the university development of fifty years ago. There is need for the quick organization and wise administration of graduate studies in medicine for a variety of quite different purposes and students. There will be an increasing number of those young men and women scientifically inclined who, having completed their professional course in medicine, desire not so much to practice that art as to

* Report for 1923-24, p. 42.

carry on laboratory or clinical studies in some special field of inquiry. Then there will be those who after being graduated in medicine wish to look forward to practicing not general internal medicine but some medical specialty. For such students, one, two, or even three years of graduate work must be prepared and directed in order that they may be guided to the beginnings of their chosen career as specialists in medicine. Then again there is a third and highly important group composed of those physicians in active practice, many of them at a considerable distance from the great centers of medical teaching and research, who after a number of years desire to come to a medical school or hospital for a longer or a shorter period in order to observe and to learn some of the newer methods of medical treatment which have been developed since their own student days. Throughout the country there are thousands of such men and women who, if opportunity were afforded, would gladly come to New York to pursue for six weeks or six months or a longer period highly specialized and intensive courses of graduate study in medical school or in hospital.

All this work cannot be done, and should not be attempted, at the Medical Center alone. There are admirable hospitals whose own medical services would be improved and stimulated by contact with advanced and graduate students of any one of these types, and such hospitals may wisely be brought into relationship with the University's educational system and made a part thereof.

There is at least one more opportunity for medical progress which is of highest importance. In the sparsely settled parts of the country the highest and best type of medical service is difficult to obtain. Men and women there suffer and die without that care which the medical profession would gladly give were the patient within reach of a thoroughly trained practitioner or a thoroughly modern and well-equipped hospital. It would be becoming for the University to find ways and means to establish at some suitable point in the rural districts of the state of New York a central hospital and medical service, and from this as a

center, to provide, by a staff of young physicians and internes, for the medical care and supervision of the population within a radius of, say, thirty or forty miles. A successful and convincing experiment of this kind would be a new and prodigious public service, for once the demonstration had been made, benefactors and communities in all parts of the country would quickly multiply it by imitation.

Modern medicine is only at the beginning of its public service in the United States. Health inspection, personal and public hygiene, preventive medicine, organized graduate studies, and effective medical service for thinly settled communities, are all problems which invite early solution and call for new resources as well as new ideas.*

EDUCATION IN ENGINEERING

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

It may fairly be said, however, that certain broad principles are coming into view as those which may well control the engineering education of the future. It is reasonably plain that the special training of the engineer ought to rest on a larger body of general preparatory study than that given by the secondary school. The responsibilities of the engineer are such, and the place which he occupies in the community is of so high a character, that in planning for his professional training we ought to provide that he shall have had opportunity to come into at least some contact with those delightful studies which assist in laying the foundation for any superstructure that specialization may later put upon it.

In my judgment the following proposals will stand the test of critical examination and discussion:

1. Students should as soon as practicable enter the Schools of Applied Science not directly from the secondary schools as now, but only after at least two years of study in Columbia College or in a college or scientific school of similar standing.

* Report for 1919-30, pp. 42-44.

2. The Faculty of Applied Science should indicate to the Faculty of the College how, in their judgment, the intending student of engineering could best spend these two college years in order better to prepare himself for work in the applied sciences.

3. During these two years of college work the subjects now taken in the first year of the course of Applied Science might easily be included. These are in reality subjects of a general scientific character such as are appropriate to a college program; indeed, they are now almost without exception included in that program.

4. The student who, thus prepared, places himself under the jurisdiction of the Faculty of Applied Science, might well, I think, devote himself to the general, unspecialized study of engineering for two years, leaving his highly concentrated work in a particular field or department of engineering, leading to a specific engineering degree, to follow as graduate study. If the degree of B.S. were given at the conclusion of the four-year period of study — two years in the College and two years in the Applied Sciences — it would be a degree having real significance and value.

5. At the same time advanced instruction and research should be developed in the various engineering departments, leading to the degree of Doctor of Engineering, which degree should be on a plane with the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

It is now generally felt, I think, that the inclusion in the Faculty of Pure Science some years ago of the professors of engineering, and the transfer to that Faculty of research work in engineering, were not wholly fortunate. The Faculty of Applied Science might itself well be held responsible for all the work in engineering, both that which is strictly professional in character and that which takes the form of advanced instruction and research for students who have already gained a professional degree.

The incidental advantages of such a plan as is above outlined

would be that no dislocation of the relations between the University and the secondary schools would follow, for intending students of engineering would enter the University on the same basis as at present, but they would be classified on the University's records as college students rather than as professional students, during the first two years of their course. The proposed degree of Bachelor of Science would be on the same plane as the degree of Bachelor of Arts, while the specialized degrees of Engineer of Mines, Civil Engineer, Mechanical Engineer, Electrical Engineer, Chemical Engineer, and the rest, would then come to stand in the same general relation to the work of the University as does the degree of Master of Arts, a relationship which more accurately corresponds to the fact than does the present one.

Some such readjustment as this would strengthen the work in Applied Science itself, first by giving it a better foundation to rest upon than at present, and, second, by spreading it over a somewhat longer period than now, and so relieving the very great pressure under which the student of Applied Science finds himself in attempting to carry the present program of studies successfully. Such a student could then enter more freely than is now possible into the general academic life and participate more largely in student activities. He would also find the opportunity, now denied him, for sharing in many of the incidental advantages which the University offers to those who are in residence, and so gaining a larger benefit from his period of university study. It is not too much to hope that before another year has passed some conclusions on all of these important matters may be arrived at that will commend themselves to the Faculty of Applied Science and to the Trustees alike.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

Now that so ample provision has been made for the Medical School, and the other professional and technical schools of the

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 25-27.

University are on so satisfactory a basis, the time has come to give more special and concentrated attention to the advanced and research work of the University in the whole field of engineering. The line of separation between pure and applied science is increasingly difficult to discern and to maintain. The real distinction would appear to lie not so much in the subject matter as in the spirit with which the work of research is carried on. The applications in industry and in commerce of the principles and facts which constitute chemistry, physics, and mechanics, for example, are made possible only by reason of a thorough understanding of those principles and facts. When research in the field of natural and experimental science was young in the United States, and when the dominant motive and interest of the people were largely material, it was perhaps not difficult to distinguish between what came to be called the field of pure science and that of applied science. Conditions have, however, sharply changed during the past generation, and the intermingling of the two is very considerable even if it be not complete.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

The work under the jurisdiction of the Faculty of Engineering is being constantly readjusted and extended, in order to keep pace with the astounding expansion of engineering knowledge and practice which is now going on. It has become quite plain during the past few years that engineering stands in very close relation to the social sciences, and the social sciences in turn have become conscious of the fact that they themselves stand in close relationship with the work of the Faculty of Law. In other words, some time-honored distinctions are breaking down and they are breaking down because they are no longer representative of clearly observable facts and relationships. No microscope is powerful enough to discover a clear and definite dividing line between that which has been called physics and that which has been called chemistry, and now that biophysics has appeared

* Report for 1921-22, p. 33.

upon the scene the same is true as to any possible dividing line between physics and biology. As teachers and research workers in the field of engineering develop their resources and expand their activities, they will find it necessary to change their point of view. They can no longer be looked upon as dwellers upon an educational island surrounded by those separating waters which used to be thought to keep pure science and applied science some distance apart. Engineering today requires for its prosecution not only minds well trained in engineering itself, but minds well disciplined and broadly furnished in all that relates to present-day human society and its multifarious problems. Here is to be found the essential reason which requires that the highest type of engineering school be a graduate school. It must require of those who offer themselves as students a knowledge of those fundamental subjects which are part and parcel of a liberal education, to the end that the engineer may himself be not only a skilled specialist in his chosen field of practice, but a well-educated and well-rounded man and student as well.

It is the aim of the Dean and Faculty of the School of Engineering to prosecute and to stimulate research, to find new and better ways of serving the practical needs of man and of society, and to accept only such well-prepared students of engineering as can be fitted into a broad, liberal and forward-facing program of this kind. The old formalistic matter-of-fact teaching of engineering is no longer in use. Something far more scholarly and profound is required to meet the needs of today.*

EDUCATION IN COMMERCE

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

The erection within the University during recent years of a School of Business on the same plane of advancement and dignity as the older professional schools has called forth comments of diverse nature. There are those who have regarded this step as a weak and unfortunate concession by the University to the ma-

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 48-49.

terial forces and temptations which encompass it on every side. There are others who see in this step the steady advance of the principles upon which a liberal education has always been built and who find those principles entering new territory and conquering it.

The latter view is both the correct one and the more reasonable. If a profession be defined as an occupation that properly involves a liberal education or its equivalent, then it is certainly reasonable to suppose that as civilization develops and advances and as life becomes more complex in its occupations and activities, there will be more occupations rather than fewer that rest upon the foundation of a liberal education. Moreover, it must not be forgotten that what we have been accustomed to call the learned professions were originally all one, and that the separation from a common origin of religion, law, medicine and teaching has been brought about by that process of evolution which Herbert Spencer so characteristically and so ponderously describes as the passage from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to a definite coherent heterogeneity. What has happened is that several additions, including business, have of late been made to this formerly restricted number of learned professions.

Business itself, particularly at the hands of those who understand it best and who represent it best, has undergone a surprisingly notable development within the memory of the present generation. Not long ago a social philosopher of cynical habit sarcastically remarked that the morals and standards of the man of business were essentially the same as those of the pirate and the freebooter. Presumably what this unkindly critic had in mind was the predominance in business of the gain-seeking motive. But it is just this gain-seeking motive that has been altered in its importance and its incidence by the changes of recent years. To be shut up alone with the gain-seeking instinct and habit during the whole of an active life is the most dreadful punishment that can be visited on mortal man. It is the more dreadful because the sufferer is usually so blissfully unconscious that he has lost any-

thing. Happily, times are changing and men are changing with them. Business, in order to be successful, must now have the support of public opinion and popular approval. Society has it in its power gravely to limit or even to crush any business organization or activity of which it does not approve or which it regards as harmful to itself. In instinctive recognition of this fact, business is coming pretty much everywhere and in almost all its forms to set before itself a new ideal, which is that of gain and service, just as the university has its ideal of scholarship and service. In other words, it is now seen that the gain-seeking motive alone readily becomes a mere manifestation of the predatory instinct and must sooner or later not only injure society but wholly demoralize those who remain subject to that motive alone. Everywhere the great banks, the transportation companies, the public utility services, the manufacturing establishments and in large part the retail shops are competing with each other to give public service and to stabilize and make certain that necessary gain upon which their existence depends by a service that will be recognized and appreciated by the general public. This is a change of mood, of temper and of outlook of literally stupendous significance for the democratic state. No plan of insurance that the wit of man could possibly devise can equal this union of gain and service in a common ideal as protection for an industrial, economic and financial system which unites in one unit of coöperation the energies of those who work with their hands, of those who work with their brains and of those who work with their savings. This new business ideal, gain and service, invites and even compels a higher standard of preparation, a broader knowledge as foundation and a larger intellectual outlook as driving power.

It is only under a democratic social system that the man of business carries weight or gains respect. Under every other form of social order he is looked down upon as an inferior who is a necessary and useful hewer of wood and drawer of water, to be paid something for his service. Tacitus in his *Annals* tells of one

of the friends of the Emperor Tiberius who was entrusted for four and twenty years with the government of great provinces "not for any preëminent accomplishments, but because he had talents equal to business and aspired no higher." * This is a perfect example of the historic judgment on men of business from which they rescue themselves as they gain a liberal education and surround their gain-seeking organizations with the spirit of public and human service.

With this conception of business it is obvious that professional preparation for it finds a natural place in the university by the side of the older forms of occupation that have so long attracted the best and most ambitious of men. Today every important business enterprise is enriched by the association and service of men of special and scientific training, by the apparatus of research and improvement, and by the counsel and guidance of those who are able to observe large social and industrial movements and to interpret them to the advantage of the particular undertaking in whose service they are. In other words, there is coming to be a philosophy of business as there has long been a philosophy of theology, of law, of medicine and of teaching, and it is through the door of that philosophy, that understanding of fundamental principles and higher standards, that the university will seek to lead men and women to prepare themselves for the capable and competent pursuit of this form of intellectual activity and public service. The old-fashioned so-called practical man who worked by rule of thumb and was proud of his ignorance is passing. His place is being taken by a higher, a better trained and a more public-spirited type. To promote this change and to assist it is one of the glad functions of the university.†

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

The university study of business organization, business principles and business methods stands in the same relation to the

* Tacitus *Annales* vi. 39.

† Report for 1926-27, pp. 27-30.

study of economics, sociology and law that the university study of engineering occupies in relation to mathematical and physical science. It profits by a separate organization and by an independent university consciousness just as does engineering and for like reasons. The active and most valuable researches carried on by members of the Faculty of the School of Business, and the constant demand for the service of these scholars as expert advisers in some form or department of official public service, indicate clearly in what estimate the work of the School of Business is held by the public. The standards of admission to the work of the School and the severe program of study which its students follow are wholly admirable. Its constituency and its influence are not only national but international, and it has demonstrated that university methods, university standards and university ideals can constantly conquer new fields of human activity that were at one time supposed to be far beyond the reach of university interest and university influence. If present fortunate tendencies continue, the time will come when all serious professions will be learned professions, and it will no longer be possible to restrict that term to law, medicine and theology, which had their academic beginnings long ago in the Middle Ages.*

EDUCATION IN JOURNALISM

OCTOBER 5, 1903

With the establishment of a School of Journalism of university grade, a new academic field is entered upon. While in a sense this undertaking is experimental, yet it is the judgment of the University, and that of a large and influential portion of the newspaper press, that it will be abundantly successful. If journalism is a calling for which no previous training is desirable or necessary, then it must be held to be an exception to all other professions, trades, and occupations. Natural aptitude will always lay the surest foundation for usefulness in any career, and practical experience well analyzed and understood is of prime importance;

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 41-42.

but between the two lie the study of principles and practices, the acquirement of the subsidiary information which must be drawn upon, and the practice under criticism which gives to the beginner the benefit of the experience of others. All these this University can furnish for journalism, as it furnishes them for engineering and for teaching. The University cannot guarantee to produce good newspaper men, any more than it can guarantee to produce good engineers or good teachers; but it can and will train students to become such if they have the root of the matter in them.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1913

The last Annual Report described the plan of organization of the newly established and endowed School of Journalism, which has now completed its first year of work. During the year the building for which provision was specifically made in Mr. Pulitzer's will has been completed and occupied. . . . Unquestionably, the School of Journalism will have much to learn from experience, but it cannot be doubted that the institution which Mr. Pulitzer's foresight discerned and his benefaction made possible is already, in the short time that has elapsed since his death, in successful operation. It has become a new source of strength to Columbia University and a marked addition to the equipment of the United States in higher and professional education.†

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

As the work of the School of Journalism establishes itself yet more firmly each year on a foundation of sound and broad scholarship, the Faculty will prepare itself, as other University faculties have done, for the work of research. It will not be satisfied with training members of a profession which it is making a learned one, but it will wish to study with originality, insight and judgment those questions, both theoretical and practical, the solution of which constantly vexes the most competent and experienced working journalists.

* Report for 1902-3, p. 2.

† Report for 1912-13, pp. 44-45.

The gap between what is best and what is worst in American journalism is very wide. There is no very great use in calling attention to what is bad, because the journalist will always have the last word, and when reason fails him cynicism and sarcasm remain his contented weapons. The daily newspaper has come to play a part in the making of public opinion which is quite unequaled by any other agency or instrumentality. It does this not so much through the expression of editorial opinion, however wise and discriminating that may be, as through its selection and presentation of news, since it is this upon which public attention seizes, it is this which the public remembers, it is this which the public discusses, and it is this upon which the public acts. Unhappily, there is frequently a great difference to be found between the news and the truth; yet the daily journal must print the news, because news it is. If the truth comes to light later on, this too will be printed as news, but it may never be so fortunate, perhaps through lack of dramatic or emotional quality, as to attract the attention of the millions of those who have read and believed the news as it was first presented and as it offered itself without suspicion that it would sooner or later be contradicted. During and since the Great War, it has fortunately been customary for the chief newspapers, particularly those in this metropolitan city, to give to their readers, at whatever cost, the full text of important speeches and documents, in order that these may be read and estimated by the intelligent reader himself rather than be presented to him in rewritten form by some other hand, however skillful. This custom, expensive though it be, has been of the greatest advantage to the American people and has contributed mightily to their education. It has well repaid all its undoubtedly great cost.

The outstanding characteristic of the lower-grade American journalism is vulgarity. There are those who appear to think that it is only through vulgarity of thought or of expression or both, that a large circulation can be built up, and a large circulation must be had at all hazards. This vulgarity shows itself not only in

thought and in language, but also in the type forms which are used to attract the attention of the mob reader. It is fortunate that journalism of this type is largely confined to the great cities, where these low-grade publications must always be in painful contrast to those which in the same communities are edited day by day on a high plane of dignity and responsibility.*

EDUCATION IN ARCHITECTURE AND ARTS

OCTOBER 6, 1902

Such a School of Fine Arts as is in contemplation would serve a most useful purpose in keeping steadily before the students and the community the fact that some knowledge of art and some appreciation of it is an indispensable part of any real culture, and that without this knowledge and appreciation there can be no adequate comprehension of some of the most significant periods in the history of civilization. Of the five great aspects of civilization which have appeared in history — the scientific, the literary, the institutional, the religious, and the aesthetic — Columbia University makes full provision for three only. Admirable and praiseworthy as are the religious influences at work throughout the University, they must lack much until they may center about a university chapel, adequately endowed for its proper work. Excellent, also, as are the beginnings which have been made in the study and teaching of the fine arts and of archaeology, they must remain only beginnings until a School of Fine Arts is organized to represent and to develop them properly.†

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

One important advantage which the University hopes to gain from the establishment of a Faculty of Fine Arts has not been sufficiently emphasized. That such a Faculty, properly organized and conducted, would do much to promote and improve art

* Report for 1932-33, pp. 37-39.

† Report for 1901-2, pp. 51-52.

education itself, can hardly be doubted; but a second service that it would perform is no whit less important. It is high time that the fine arts should find their proper place in the general education of American youth. The existence in the University of a Faculty devoted to the cultivation of the fine arts and representative of them and of their interests, would contribute powerfully to this end. There is something startling in the fact that while no person of education would be willing to admit that he knew nothing of the life and work and place in history of Dante, Shakspeare, and Goethe, yet he would admit his ignorance of Raphael, Michelangelo, and Rembrandt, or of Bach, Beethoven, and Wagner, without feeling that such an admission reflected in any way upon his intelligence. Life will be richer and fuller and education more rounded and complete when a knowledge of the fine arts and their influence is placed side by side with the knowledge of literature that has for hundreds of years held a leading place in modern education.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

The School of Architecture, which will be included in any Faculty of Fine Arts that may be formed, is hereafter to be an advanced school, requiring of candidates for its professional degree, on admission, evidence of the satisfactory completion of a college or scientific school course of not less than two years, or equivalent training to be tested by examination, together with such proficiency in drawing as the department may prescribe. Other students of unusual ability or special architectural experience, who, in the judgment of the Faculty, are worthy to be admitted to the training which the school offers, may be admitted without becoming candidates for a degree; but such students will be allowed, under conditions clearly defined, to qualify themselves later to become candidates for the professional degree if their work in the School of Architecture is of marked excellence.

The program of studies in architecture has been reorganized

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 23-24.

with courses of units of instruction as the basis, and the number of years to be devoted to the curriculum by any student will depend upon his individual proficiency and application.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1906

The office of the University in relation to these fields of work [architecture, music, and design] is chiefly to develop instruction in the history and theory of the fine arts, and to stimulate and train investigators properly equipped to take up the problems offered in the very wide field included under the single name aesthetics.

The newly created Faculty cannot do justice to its work, and cannot possibly reach the ideal that it has marked out for itself, unless the University is able to maintain a properly equipped chair of the history and criticism of the fine arts. The instruction to be offered by the incumbent of such a chair furnishes what is really the backbone to any scheme of university instruction in the fine arts. . . .

As was pointed out in the Annual Report of 1905, the University as a whole hopes to gain from the existence of a Faculty of Fine Arts the valuable results that must follow from giving to the fine arts their proper place in the scheme of general liberal education.†

TEACHER-TRAINING AND DOMESTIC ARTS

OCTOBER 6, 1902

The details of this reorganization [the separation of education from philosophy and of anthropology from psychology, and the union of psychology with philosophy] are of more than mere administrative interest. They mark the new and growing importance which is attached to anthropology as a subject of investigation and instruction; the fact that while psychology has taken on, in many ways, the form of a natural science, its dependence upon

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 21-22.

† Report for 1905-6, p. 33.

philosophy and its relation to it are as close as ever; and the development of education to a point where it can stand alone and without the special support of philosophy, on which it depends. Every attempt to develop education as a university subject apart from philosophy has resulted in making it merely a more or less formal and futile discussion of schoolroom methods or an attempt to formulate a very doubtful body of educational doctrine. At Columbia, education, from the very first instruction given in the subject, in 1886, has been held in close touch with the history and criticism of philosophy. As a result, it is now upon a sound philosophical foundation and no longer needs to have that fact emphasized in matters of organization and administration.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

The year at Teachers College has been one of steady progress. The aim of the College is more clearly understood each year, and it is no longer likened either to a normal school on the one hand or to a technical school on the other. It has steadily pursued the path marked out for it in the beginning, of treating education as a unit resting on a philosophic foundation. That foundation has in it elements psychological, elements economic, elements historical, and elements philosophical, in the narrower sense of that word. To each and all of these Teachers College devotes itself impartially, and it presents to the University of which it is a part and to the public a conception and a treatment of education that, after all these years, remain unique. . . .

Teachers College is not only a pioneer in the general field of education, but more particularly in the shaping of the elements of an industrial civilization to educational purposes and ends. The manual arts have, in many of their forms, long been educationally well organized at Teachers College. The splendid provision for the work in domestic science and art will lead to marked progress in that important field, and, in particular, it will offer to gradu-

* Report for 1901-2, p. 53.

ates of women's colleges a new opportunity for scholarly exercise and for practical usefulness.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1911

It was pointed out (Annual Report for 1910, p. 51) that from the very foundation of the College the two elements of vocational training and the scientific study of education had been present in its organization and work, and the suggestion was offered that the time was at hand when the Faculty of the College might well be divided into two parts or sections corresponding to these two great divisions of work.

Further reflection and study of the growth of Teachers College have strengthened the opinion then expressed and have served to emphasize it. There are not many living who remember that the Teachers College of today is the result of two confluent streams of tendency. The one, taking its origin in the old Kitchen Garden Association of New York, built up the Industrial Education Association, the object of which was to introduce manual training and vocational preparation generally into the work of the elementary and secondary schools. The other, having its source in the Columbia College of the eighties, sought to find opportunity to put the study of education on a scientific basis and to elevate that subject into one of full university rank. The two streams met and the amazing result is the Teachers College as we know it.

It is plain that as matters have developed, the vocational work of Teachers College stands, and ought to stand, in a different relation to the University from that which its work in the field of the theory and practice of education proper bears. There is danger to both of these departments of activity if they are not somewhat sharply differentiated both in thought and in practice. The Dean, in his present report, points out how difficult it is to obtain properly equipped students for the work of the Schools of Household Arts and of Industrial Arts if they are treated as advanced schools of full university rank. . . .

* Report for 1907-8, pp. 41-42.

Having these facts in mind, it is now recommended that the work of the Schools of Household Arts and of Industrial Arts be separated from that of Teachers College proper, and that this work be organized into an Institute or School bearing some appropriate name, to be maintained, as the work to be included therein is now maintained, by the Trustees of Teachers College, for the training of those students who, having completed a secondary school course, do not wish to go to college, but look forward rather to training of the kind which such an Institute or School would offer. Should this step be taken, the name Teachers College might well be confined to the work of Teachers College proper — that is, the study of the theory and practice of education. . . .

Should such an Institute or School be brought into existence, it would help to clear up one other educational misunderstanding which is the cause of much current discussion. There is no little melodrama connected with all debates as to the relations between secondary schools and colleges and as to the admission of college students. Representatives of secondary schools, and newspapers which print reports of their meetings and discussions, are very apt to demand in no uncertain voice that the tyrannical hand of the college be removed from the throat of the long-suffering secondary school, and that the secondary school be permitted to go its way untrammelled and unhampered. The notion underlying these ecstatic appeals appears to be that somehow or other the work of secondary schools is necessarily controlled and distressed by the colleges. Nothing could be farther from the fact. Any secondary school is free to do whatever it chooses within the limits fixed by its local governing board and its financial resources. It need not trouble to prepare any student for college if it does not wish to, or to teach any of the subjects which colleges ordinarily prescribe for admission to the Freshman Class; but, as a matter of fact, the secondary schools do these things in their own interest simply because a certain number of their students look forward to a college course. From this it is but

a short step to the claim, educationally unsound and practically unjustifiable, that whatever a secondary school chooses to teach should be accepted by the colleges at its face value in estimating a candidate's fitness for admission, and that the encomiums of a pupil's teachers in the secondary school should serve to admit him to college without further test or inquiry.

The walls of some colleges fall down before the blare of trumpets such as these. The walls of some other colleges, including those of Columbia and Barnard, do not fall down quite so quickly when these things are said or shouted. The situation which the secondary schools are anxious to improve would be changed but not relieved by following the course which they desire, although the colleges would be ruined in the process.

The real grievance of the secondary schools is not at all as it is usually stated to be; it is quite different and very real. What is needed is adequate provision by which students who have completed any serious curriculum in a secondary school may go on to more advanced study of something for which their school training has fitted them. This is quite a different thing from saying that any study which the secondary school chooses to introduce should be counted as the equivalent of any other in estimating the qualifications of candidates for admission to college. Most of the students who wish to go to college on terms of their own making do not really wish to go to college at all; they wish to go to some kind of institution that will give them serious systematic and scientific training of a kind that will lead them to gain mastery over the elements of a given vocation. Such students do not want a college education; they want vocational training, and it goes without saying that the educational system of the country ought to make provision for them.

Such an Institute as has been outlined would make provision, ample and generous, for just this class of students. In the Schools of Household Arts and of Industrial Arts, they could go forward under the most expert guidance and with the best teaching, in the study of any one of several vocations that lie outside the

scope of the University's work in its present professional schools or that of the new work already proposed in Journalism, in Agriculture and in Commerce. Such students would be enabled after graduation to earn a good livelihood, and they would have received sound mental discipline in the process. It might well happen, therefore, that such an Institute, while an aid in clarifying the work of the present Teachers College and in differentiating the scientific study of education from the preparation for various vocations other than teaching, would at the same time point the way toward solving one of the really important educational questions of the present day in America — namely, what provision shall be made for the graduate of the secondary school who does not wish to go to college for the purpose of obtaining general culture and a liberal training, but who does wish to go forward, under the auspices of an institution of higher learning, for an additional period of years in the scientific study of some vocation? *

* Report for 1910-11, pp. 48-53.

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PART FIVE

THE FACULTY AND PROBLEMS
OF INSTRUCTION

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XV

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

A HINT FROM GERMANY

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

THE American universities are pretty generally engaged in unlearning some of the lessons taught them by the German universities, but there is one German university institution which is worthy of adaptation under American conditions. The ranks of the German university professors have long been recruited from what are called *Privat-docenten*, a specially selected and licensed body of university graduates who, having taken the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, wish to devote themselves to higher teaching and research in a chosen field. *Privat-docenten* are permitted to offer courses of instruction which university students may take, if they will, in preference to those offered in the same or similar subjects by the university professors or in supplement to such. As the only income which a *Privat-docent* receives from the university is a share in the fees paid by those students who follow his particular courses, each *Privat-docent* is dependent upon his own efforts for his university income and for establishing himself in such fashion as to make his advancement to a professorship likely. In our Graduate Faculties at Columbia there have been too many professors, associate professors, and assistant professors, and too many formal courses of instruction offered. Some departments have felt that it was a cause of reproach if they did not cover in announced courses every portion of some great field of knowledge. Ambitions like these have had unhappy and very costly effects. It is time closely to restrict appointments to professorships, greatly to reduce the number of formal courses of lectures offered to graduate students, and to multiply the opportunities for such students to carry on independent study and research under guidance and stimulus while

making provision for a body of younger teachers with the status of Docents. Such Docents might be paid to the extent of receiving a fixed annual retainer of, say, \$500 or even \$1,000, and in addition given a definite portion of the fees paid by students who are enrolled in their several courses of instruction. In this way a training ground would be provided for future university professors in Columbia and elsewhere, and Docents might come and go as their taste or capacity indicated, without that disappointment and friction which almost invariably accompany the severing of an academic tie for any cause whatsoever.

The recruiting of the ranks of university professors in the future is a matter that should not be overlooked. If the best type of man is to be drawn into academic work he must be given an early opportunity to test his powers and to show of what stuff he is made. It is probable that not very many men continue to grow in intellectual power after they have left the university; and in order to make sure that they are given opportunity and stimulus to grow, it is essential that they be not kept in posts of inconsequence and drudgery, but offered a chance to stretch their wings and fly. Many a man who had the making of a scholar at twenty-five has lost all chance of achieving that result at thirty-five, simply through lack of intellectual nourishment and academic opportunity. The older men can usually take care of themselves; it is for the younger men of promise, capacity, and ambition that the path to success should be made open and easy.

On the other hand, there is a real difficulty in recruiting the ranks of college and university teachers from young men who are without experience in life and in affairs. The mere fact that a young man has passed through an undergraduate course with credit and has then taken the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with distinction does not entitle him to sit in judgment upon society or to organize expeditions for the uprooting of all the results of human experience. He is a poor sort of human being who is not a bit radical in his youth and a bit conservative in his maturer years; but a university is a continuing institution with a

heavy public responsibility, and in trying to make it easy for men to become scholars and teachers it must not increase thereby the dangers to which the foundations of civilization and public order are constantly exposed by the mere lapping of the waves of change. Good judgment and sagacity are almost always marks of a mature mind, and only occasionally does a well-balanced genius have these traits in youth. This is why a certain modesty in examining, interpreting, and attacking human experience is a quality greatly to be praised in younger teachers of ambition and zeal.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

As the years pass and the time comes when our older scholars of distinction and large achievement apply to be relieved of farther active service, they are uniformly asked where the University is to look for the best and most competent scholars for appointment to succeed those who are laying aside their burdens. With discouraging frequency the reply is made that there are no outstanding names which deserve special consideration, but that a choice must be made from a larger or a smaller group of mediocrities. When the question is pressed as to why such a condition exists, particularly in fields of knowledge that are eagerly pursued and that have large present public interest and importance, the answer is that while there are many narrow men of competence within the limitations of their interest, there are few broad men able to grasp and to interpret a given field of knowledge, as well as to advance its boundaries by independent study and reflection.

A situation such as this must give us pause when we attempt to appraise what may be the value and what the major effects of our present-day system of school and college training in the United States. The longer one examines the programs of study that are now most widely followed, observes the spirit in which school and college teaching is so often carried on, and notes

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 22-25.

the careful avoidance of anything that makes for genuine scholarship and power of reflective thinking, one is forced to raise the very far-reaching question, whether we have not destroyed the ideal of the liberally educated man and, with it, the liberally educated man himself. If by any chance this has happened or is happening, then no amount of expenditure upon education, whether public or private, and no statistics of increased enrollment and school attendance can possibly compensate for the appalling damage that will have been done to the intellectual and moral life of the nation.

A liberal education is one that is fit for a free man who is worthy of his freedom. Such an one must be intellectually, morally and economically free as well as in enjoyment of that freedom which is strictly political. To this end he must have a grasp on the fundamental facts in the history of man and of nature, and at least the beginnings of an understanding of those great historic movements in the fields of intelligence, of morals, of letters, of science, of the fine arts, and of social and political endeavor, which make up the warp and the woof of that finished fabric which we call civilization. The notion that intensive and very accurate knowledge of a narrow field, and nothing more, can constitute a liberally educated man, is a grotesque absurdity. The notion that an acquaintance with the superficial aspect of civilization will suffice, with no knowledge of that history which is its third dimension, is equally absurd. The plain fact is that early and intense specialization, which has been widely urged for various insufficient and unconvincing reasons, is at the bottom of the trouble. Specialization is the parent of information and of a certain type of skill, but it is the foe of knowledge and the mortal enemy of wisdom. Not narrow men, however keen, but broad men sharpened to a point, are the ideal product of a sound system of school and college education.

The most pressing and insistent of all university problems at the moment is the finding of men soundly and broadly trained, with philosophic grasp of their chosen field of knowledge, with

large intellectual outlook and sympathy, and with eager competence to press forward into new fields and to carry an enthusiastic company of younger scholars with them. If such can be found, the immediate future of the university is secure; but if they be not found, then the outlook is difficult and dark indeed.

The problem is gravely complicated by the odd assortment of anti-philosophies which, attempting to wear the garb of philosophy and using its nomenclature, just now occupy a considerable portion of the academic stage. These anti-philosophies are the product of minds that have never really grasped the meaning of the word philosophy or the significance of philosophy itself. They either confuse philosophy with psychology, after the fashion of John Locke and William James, or they look upon it as a more or less ornamental appendage of the natural and experimental sciences. They appear to have no conception of the fundamental fact first discovered and made irrefutably clear by Plato and Aristotle nearly twenty-five hundred years ago, that there are three distinct stages or orders of thinking manifested by man. The first is the stage of uncritical common sense which lies below the horizon of the intellectual life. It is characteristic of the child and of the countless millions of unreflecting adults. It has been dignified by the name common sense, but its proper designation is common ignorance.

The second stage or order of thinking looks upon the world as one of constantly changing but definite objects whose interrelations are of massive significance. This point of view and the methods that have been developed for giving expression to it constitute science, the true source of whose life is to be found, as is admirably indicated in the profound words of Lotze, "in showing how absolutely universal is the extent, and at the same time how completely subordinate the significance, of the mission which mechanism has to fulfill in the structure of the world."

The third stage or order of knowing views the world as totality. There is, then, obviously nothing to which totality can be related, nothing on which it can be dependent, and no source from

which its energy can be derived. The habit of mind which has reached this third stage or order of knowing, its standpoint and its insights, are philosophy. These, and these alone, are philosophy. He who cannot grasp the distinction between the three orders or stages of knowing, and who cannot view the world or cosmos as totality, is not capable of philosophy. His reflections and his teachings, however interesting or however important, should be called by some other name.

The liberally educated man is, consciously or unconsciously, cast in the philosophic mold. He has equipped himself for reflective thinking, for interpretation, and for those deeper insights into the meaning of knowledge and of life that raise him above the common mass of men. It is this liberally educated man who, when fired by scholarly zeal and passion for truth, makes the ideal academic teacher and gives to the youth who surround him some portion of his own insights and his own character. This is the man for whom the University is in search as its various posts of leadership and distinction fall vacant with the lapse of time.*

LIBERALLY TRAINED TEACHERS

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

In the vigorous contemporary discussions that are going forward in more lands than one as to the adequacy or inadequacy of present-day education, chief stress is almost uniformly laid upon the altered content of modern life and on the great mass of new knowledge that has been brought into education by the physical and natural sciences, as well as by that form of mass introspection which is called social science. These are most important matters and all of them play their part. There is, however, another matter, quite generally overlooked, which is accountable for educational delinquencies that are truly without number and quite appalling in their significance.

Whatever may be the case elsewhere, in the United States, teachers themselves, save those exceptions which here as always

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 20-24.

prove the rule, whether in school, in college or in university, are, and for some time past have been, in large part quite uneducated in any large and justifiable sense of that word. The elaborate training which they have so often received is a sorry substitute for education. They are high-minded, eager and devoted specialists and illustrate to the full the definition, marked as much by truth as by wit, that the specialist is one who knows more and more about less and less. For whatever other purposes this trait may be useful, it is quite futile as an instrument of education. What one misses today is that background of good manners, of correct and cultivated speech, of high standards of appreciation in art and in letters, that general and kindly acquaintance with all that is best in literature, in the fine arts and in reflective thought, which has always constituted the tie that binds together the men and women of genuine educational insight and competence. The usual deplorable incapacity in the matter of foreign languages on the part of the American teacher engaged in secondary or higher education is a weakness which grows in importance as the world's interests multiply. There is profound truth in the pregnant maxim of Goethe: *Wer fremde Sprachen nicht kennt, weiss nichts von seiner eigenen*. Not to be able to speak either French or German or Italian or Spanish, and to read perhaps but one of these stumbingly and without appreciation of form or style, is of itself pretty much to sterilize the educational power of years of specialized study and acquisition.

Certain social changes are not to be lost sight of in considering the limitations that so often encompass the American teacher of today. For two hundred years the teacher came almost uniformly from the families of the professional class, whether clergyman or lawyer or physician or man of letters. At home, first under the candle and then under the lamp, there were those family exchanges and communions, those hours of reading and discussion, those words of parental and grandparental guidance and criticism which played their great, if silent, part in building up the framework for a liberal education. We have the statement of Joseph

Scaliger that this was the custom in his own day nearly four hundred years ago.* Only a few weeks ago the Prime Minister of England, in one of those charming addresses on non-political subjects which seem to fall so easily from his lips, bore public testimony as President of the English Association to the working of these same influences in his own life. He told his hearers how it was that his mother introduced him to poetry and how Wordsworth and Blake, Scott and Bunyan, Malory and Grimm, and Lamb and Captain Marryat were brought successively into his youthful life. Those conditions have largely passed away. Not only are the teachers of today drawn from a much wider field of recruitment, but family conditions themselves have changed, and what the son or the daughter received from parent or grandparent thirty years ago or more is not often transmitted to the youth who is to be the parent of tomorrow. A neat and well-kept person, good manners, cultivated speech and some appreciation and understanding of the best that has been said and done in the world would constitute a high but practicable ideal for the education of American youth in this twentieth century. The pressure for the acquisition in infancy and adolescence of specific gain-making competences and talents is not a sign of educational progress, it is a sign of a return to the Dark Ages, the more dismal and dolorous because so largely unconscious and so usually accompanied by those shouts of triumph with which the barbarian uniformly celebrates his slayings of those things that he destroys because he does not appreciate or understand.†

* Robinson, *Autobiography of Joseph Scaliger* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1927), p. 30.

† Report for 1926-27, pp. 18-20.

XVI

COLLEGE TEACHING

CRITERIA OF GOOD TEACHING

OCTOBER 6, 1902

SIGNIFICANT as these matters are, and seriously as they affect the relation of Columbia University to the public welfare, there are still others which claim attention and which yield to none in importance. Of these I may mention at this time five: the maintenance of educational efficiency; the promotion of research; the better organization of the teaching of the natural sciences; the development of the social side of academic life through the provision of dormitory accommodations for students; and the length of the College course and the relation of that course to the rest of the work of the University.

To secure and maintain educational efficiency is the most serious and ever-present aim of every institution of learning. Educational efficiency rarely happens; it is made by careful plan and unremitting supervision. It is unattainable when poor teaching is permitted, particularly of elementary classes, and when standards are lowered for personal, social, or athletic reasons, or in order to secure a larger attendance of students. A low educational tone in a college or university rapidly communicates itself to the student body, with disastrous results.*

OCTOBER 6, 1902

I find myself in hearty agreement with the recently expressed opinion of President Jordan of Stanford University that "in the long run, the greatest university will be the one that devotes the most care to its undergraduates." . . . The reading of lectures or the hearing of prepared recitations is not teaching. It is primarily the duty of the head of each department, and after him the

* Report for 1901-2, p. 23.

duty of the Dean and of the President, to make sure that the undergraduate teaching is really good and helpful. To make this possible, only tried and experienced teachers should be put in charge of classroom work, and only those should be appointed to teach who add to scholarship, however great, the gifts of sympathy and teaching skill.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

It is vitally important always and everywhere to be on guard against the domination of the mechanical, the bookkeeping, and the accounting element in education. Nothing is easier than to permit students and teachers alike to gain the impression that before obtaining a degree or an academic honor one has only to complete so many subjects, to attend so many hours, or to win so many points. Machinery for measurement and record is necessary, no doubt, but it is often more necessary that this machinery be not allowed to dominate the teaching or to gain control of the imagination of the teacher and the taught. There are those now busily instructing the public who seem to believe that it would be valuable to know the relative kilowatt power of a course in Latin prose composition and one in modern history. They display a nervous anxiety to measure the institutional voltage and to know the relative cost per capita of teaching Greek and anthropology. They appear to think that if only they can have access to Treasurer's reports and Registrar's statistics and rearrange them in some new and occult fashion, like men on a chess-board, higher education will at once be reformed and rise to new planes of achievement.

These are the delusions of the mechanically minded. They are related to the fancies of the devotee of perpetual motion and they shut out from sane contemplation the desperately human problem of education. There is really only one fundamental problem in higher education, and that is to find the teacher. Our own University needs teachers of several sorts. It needs teachers,

* Report for 1901-2, p. 24.

sympathetic, patient, unselfishly devoted, who will enter into the life and the hopes of those younger students who have but just crossed the line which separates college from secondary school, who will not put off the timid inquirer and seeker after their friendship with impatient word or gesture or with the blunt assertion that they are interested in something other than the education of young men. Then we need teachers of a different kind. We need men, whether young, middle-aged or old, who have that peculiar zeal for knowledge and that special skill in seeking it which carries them out to the frontiers of the already known, drawing after them little groups of earnest students who, like their teachers, are impatient to share the delights of discovery. When a university finds men like these, it has gotten on the track of how to provide higher education for both college and university students. Until it finds them, no university is much more than a business corporation, and while it is in that state the mechanically minded may be permitted to do with it as they will.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

An ever-present question in an institution of the higher learning is how to interest officers of instruction in the subject of education. They are certain to be interested each in his own particular branch of study, but much too few of them are interested in education itself. The consequence is that the teaching of many very famous men is distinctly poor; sometimes it is even worse. This results in part from the breakdown of the general educational process into a variety of highly specialized activities, and in part from the carelessness of college teachers as to everything which affects a student's manners, speech, conduct, and sense of proportion, provided only he gets hold of certain facts which the teacher desires to communicate. It is also due in large part to the bad tradition which so largely prevents the inspection and supervision of the work of young teachers by their elders. At

* Report for 1908-9, pp. 35-36.

one time the professor of mathematics in Columbia College made a practice of visiting the classroom of each one of his junior officers at least once in each week. He observed the discipline, the order, and the general attitude of the class. He intervened in the instruction when he felt moved to do so. He made suggestions, and if necessary, after the exercise was over he gave private criticism to the junior instructor. In this way the younger man was helped by the experience and skill of his elder. Today such a practice is almost unheard of, either in Columbia College or in any other college. With the exception of one or two departments in which better practices prevail, it is usual for even the youngest of instructors to be shut up in the classroom with a company of students and left to his own devices. The damage he may do in learning what teaching is all about is not infrequently irreparable, but no older or more experienced head is at hand to counsel and to direct him. In this way many men grow up to be poor teachers without knowing it. They are conscious of growing in scholarly power and in acquired knowledge and they readily confuse these facts with increase in teaching skill.

The late Colonel Francis W. Parker once dedicated a textbook "to all teachers who thoughtfully and thoroughly prepare every lesson." Herein lies the secret of really good teaching. The preparation of every lesson, however familiar its subject matter, is the sure protection against mechanical routine and dry-as-dust lecturing. This applies equally to instruction by lecture, by laboratory work, or by classroom teaching and discussion. The first act of a really good college teacher is to explain to his class what it is proposed to accomplish by the particular course of instruction for which they are assembled, what methods are to be followed and why, and also why a particular subject matter has been chosen. These opening explanations are as necessary to the intelligent student as is a chart to a sailor. The college student cannot be expected to guess correctly at the aim or purpose of a particular course of instruction or to find at once a satisfactory explanation of the subject matter that is presented to him for mastery.

To throw a child into deep water as a first lesson in swimming is not intelligent and usually leads to disaster. The student should always be told, before setting out on one of these intellectual voyages of discovery, what haven is his goal and what route is to be taken to reach it. After this has been done, the good college teacher will have something to say of the literature of the subject, of those books that will be found most helpful and illuminating, and of how they are to be judged and estimated relatively to one another. He will then address himself to the task, not of lecturing or of quizzing, but of actual teaching. A college class that is being well taught as a group is alert and attentive and every member of the group is in full coöperation with the other members and with the teacher. Facts are being transformed into factors of knowledge, interpretations are being developed and made clear, and criticisms are being fairly and frankly dealt with, there being complete coöperation and participation between teacher and taught. It is not good college teaching when the instructor merely lectures to his class, much less so when he drones to them. It is not good class teaching when the instructor deals with one student at a time, leaving the rest of the group listless and inattentive and awaiting what is oddly called their "turn." In the laboratories, the best teaching is now wholly individual. There is to be found what is known as constant elbow-touch between the instructor and each one of his students. Every student has his own particular task and he works diligently upon it, under certain fixed restrictions as to time and material, with a competent instructor at his elbow for guidance, for criticism, and for suggestion. As the student grows in maturity and power of self-direction, teaching naturally tends to become more and more individual until, in the advanced work of the university, the very best instruction in any subject closely resembles the elbow-touch teaching of the laboratory.

The two mistakes into which college teachers are most likely to fall are, first, that of failing to give the students such preliminary and introductory explanations as will serve as an adequate

chart for the voyage to be undertaken; and second, that of confusing the logical with the psychological order in the presentation of facts. The really good teacher knows that the logical order is the result of mature reflection and close analysis of a large body of related phenomena, and he knows too that this comes late in the history of intellectual development. He knows also that the psychological order—the true order for the teacher to follow—is the one which is fixed by the intrinsic interest and practical significance of the phenomena in question. The good teacher will not try to force the logical order of facts or phenomena upon the immature student. He will present these facts or phenomena to him in their psychological order and so give him the material with which to understand, when his knowledge is sufficiently complete, the logical order and all that it means. The notion that one who is a master of a subject is thereby of necessity a good teacher of that subject is only less misleading and mischievous than the notion that a subject may be adequately and properly taught by one who has elaborate knowledge of the technique and machinery of teaching but whose hold on the subject matter to be taught is very shaky indeed.

A matter that is closely related to poor teaching is found in the growing tendency of college and university departments to vocationalize all their instruction. A given department will plan all its courses of instruction solely from the point of view of the student who is going to specialize in that field. It is increasingly difficult to secure good courses of instruction for those who have the very proper desire to gain some real knowledge of a given topic without intending to become specialists in it. A university department is not well organized and is not doing its duty until it establishes and maintains at least one strong substantial university course designed primarily for students of maturity and power, which course will be an end in itself and will present to those who take it a general view of the subject matter of a designated field of knowledge, its methods, its literature, and its results. It should be possible for an advanced student specializing in

some other field to gain a general knowledge of physical problems and processes without becoming a physicist; or a general knowledge of chemical problems and processes without becoming a chemist; or a general knowledge of zoological problems and processes without becoming a zoologist; or a general knowledge of mathematical problems and processes without becoming a mathematician. The reply that knowledge has become so highly specialized that no one can be found to give such courses of instruction is the saddest confession of incompetence and educational failure that can possibly be made. It ought not to be made except under cover of darkness.

It is worthy of note that while difficulties are found in providing general courses of instruction of the kind described to deal with a given and limited field of knowledge, there is apparently no particular difficulty in finding courses that in limpid and desultory fashion deal with everything in the heavens above, in the earth beneath and in the waters under the earth. Last year a graduate student who was about to leave an American university made the statement that he had attended four courses of instruction given by four different persons under the auspices of four distinct departments, and that he had heard substantially the same thing in all four. This is surely a type of academic freedom upon which some limitation, economic, temporal, ethical or intellectual, might well be placed.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

No academic officer can be indifferent to the criticisms that are constantly leveled against the effectiveness and worth of college teaching. The causes which give ground for these criticisms are numerous, and some of them at least are elusive. There can be no reasonable doubt that part of the difficulty arises from the fact that many college teachers are not really college teachers at all, but men who should be engaged in other forms of intellectual work. They might, for example, be useful and successful men of

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 19-24.

letters; or they might be meritorious, or even distinguished, in conducting research and in guiding graduate students. College teaching is something quite different from either of these, and it is worthy of pursuit as an end in itself. Its present ineffectiveness, in so far as it is ineffective, may be traced, first, to a false philosophy of education which decries and derides discipline, thoroughness, and the invaluable training which follows upon the successful performance of hard and unwelcome tasks. It is due in part also to the mad competition, not only between colleges, but between departments in the same college and even between teachers in the same department, for a goodly number of students. This has led to the attempt to make college teaching entertaining and attractive by making it superficial and flippant. Wherever the lecture system has displaced teaching, this result is easily possible and often already apparent. There is probably no college in the land where an ambitious young American cannot today secure a thorough college education of the best type, if he insists upon getting it; but, on the other hand, there are very few colleges in the land where it is quite certain that by spending four years he will get such an education. It is just here that the difficulty lies. When the critic of the colleges cries out in public against their deficiencies, he has his eye not upon the saved, be they many or few, but upon the lost, be they few or many. Yet it is rather distressing to find it publicly stated that it is the judgment of high officers in the United States Army that the American youth brought to them for training by the operation of the Selective Draft Act are both mentally and physically slouchy. This is not an agreeable word to have to use in description of the young men of the nation, but it is precisely the word to use of those teachers and those influences that have brought them to this pass.

How are conditions like these to be met and overcome? The experience of the present war may suggest remedies. Indeed, one of these remedies has already been forced upon public attention by the wholly admirable results of the three months or less of in-

tensive training given in the officers' training camps at Plattsburg and elsewhere. Here young men of college and university age have been set at definite tasks in orderly fashion, and kept at work under close and intelligent supervision. They have not been talked to or droned to while sitting in rude and discourteous postures in an ill-ventilated room, taking occasional notes of what they only partially understand and listening to something in which they are only slightly interested. The college men who have exchanged a college for Plattsburg have been compelled to stand, to walk, and to sit erect, to keep their persons and their clothing clean, neat, and in good order, to be respectful to their elders and superiors in rank, and to devote themselves unceasingly to something that was plainly necessary for the task in which they were soon to engage. All this is most illuminating and it suggests a proper framework for a college program as well as for the instruction of a Plattsburg camp. A slouchy mind expresses itself in a slouchy body, and a slouchy body readily invites a slouchy mind. The college is too often slouchy and attempts to entertain when it should instruct and discipline.

The other side of the picture is brighter. The Columbia College of a generation or two ago, obvious as were its deficiencies, certainly trained leaders of men. To confute those who think that there is no correspondence between undergraduate achievement and subsequent success in life, one need but turn to the Annual Register of Columbia College for 1889-90, where on pp. 20-22 are printed the names of the First Honor Men in each succeeding class, beginning with that of 1859. A slight acquaintance with the men of consequence in New York and vicinity will soon show that this list contains an exceptionally large proportion of names of men who in later life attained positions of large service and high distinction.*

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 18-20.

LIMITATIONS OF THE LECTURE SYSTEM

NOVEMBER 4, 1907

There is a marked and healthy tendency among university teachers to lay less stress than formerly upon differences of opinion as to the relative value and importance of different subjects of study, and to devote more thought to questions connected with the most effective presentation to students of the subject matter in any given part of the field of knowledge. It is the part of wisdom not only to permit, but to encourage, wide diversity of method on the part of university teachers, in order that the personality of each teacher may express itself most directly and most effectively in its contact with students. Methods of teaching are more largely dependent upon the individual teacher than is often realized, and while certain fundamental principles governing all teaching appear to be established as the result of study and experience, yet when an attempt is made to carry uniformity into matters of detail the result is generally failure.

In those branches of natural science which afford opportunity for experiment as well as for observation, laboratory methods of teaching have gradually developed that are particularly excellent by reason of three characteristics. They bring the student in touch with concrete facts, they afford opportunity for the adaptation of the work to the needs and capacity of the individual student, and they bring student and teacher into close personal association.

These three characteristics of laboratory instruction might with some care be carried over to instruction in quite other subjects. The parrot-like repetition of passages memorized from a text has largely disappeared from college teaching and is not to be found in the universities. Unfortunately, however, the substitute which has been too often found for the old repetition from a textbook is the lecture system which has so largely characterized, and still characterizes, the work of the German university. Of lectures as a mode of imparting knowledge, Mr. Benson,

in his delightful essays entitled *From a College Window*, truly says:

They belong to the days when books were few and expensive; when few persons could acquire a library of their own; when lecturers accumulated knowledge that was not the property of the world; when notes were laboriously copied and handed on; when one of the joys of learning was the consciousness of possessing secrets not known to other men.

The value of the lecture as a method of instruction lies in the opportunity it affords for the expression of the personality of the teacher. Its limitations are due to the attempt to rely wholly upon the lecture for imparting the desired information. The lecture, if based upon a text or a syllabus in the hands of the hearers, of which text or syllabus the lecture is an exposition, or if accompanied with or followed by discussion of the material expounded, has great usefulness. Unfortunately, however, too many university teachers rely wholly upon the lecture, without any of these additional aids, and they are not always careful to see that their recommendations as to collateral reading and study are followed by the students. The result is that by the promiscuous use of the lecture system there is an enormous waste of power and a great loss of opportunity. The power of the teacher is largely wasted because under these circumstances he is able to reach and stimulate only the most intelligent and devoted students. There is a loss of opportunity because, by more personal and intimate methods of presenting the subject matter of instruction, the teacher might easily reach all the students who elect to follow his instruction. In some cases where the group of students attending any given academic exercise is small, a number of university teachers have hit upon very personal and almost ideal methods of giving their guidance and instruction. As soon, however, as the group becomes moderately large, there is a tendency to have recourse to the lecture alone, and the evils which have already been pointed out follow promptly in its train.

Undoubtedly, the university as a whole might do much to im-

prove the methods of teaching followed by the staff of instruction. For example, it could, if means were at hand, provide for each department which deals with a literary, a linguistic, an historical, an economic, or a philosophical subject, equipment similar to that which is provided for the study of mathematics and the experimental sciences. It could bring together in one building or in one group of rooms the books and illustrative apparatus useful for the presentation of a given subject and thereby put the teachers of these subjects in very much the same position as that occupied by the teacher who has provided for his use a well-equipped laboratory.

It may be, too, that our university legislation is open to criticism for compelling each student to divide his attention among too many subjects of study. At the time when this legislation was adopted, there was fear lest in the newly organized university, students would specialize unduly. It is at least open to debate whether as a result of this legislation they are not now compelled to scatter their intellectual energies unprofitably.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

The art of teaching, which depends for its success upon quick and understanding communication between mind and mind, has deplorably suffered, not gained, by the phenomenal amount of detailed analysis to which it has been subjected during the past forty years. If Herbart could have foreseen what use would be made in the United States of the *fünf formalen Stufen*, he would have regretted advancing the doctrines upon which they came to be based. The super-analysis and hyper-dissection of the teaching process have pretty well destroyed much of its power and are responsible in no small degree for the decline of true education during the past generation. The lecture system as a means of communicating facts should have been dispensed with when the art of printing was invented. The true purpose of the lecture is interpretation, and the facts to be interpreted are supposed to

* Report for 1906-7, pp. 20-23.

be in possession of the lecturer's hearers. The provision through textbook or printed syllabus of an easy means by which the student may come into possession of the facts with which a lecture or a classroom exercise is to deal, is essential. Given this, the student may be required to get the facts for himself, and then, and then only, will he be able either to participate understandingly and helpfully in a discussion of these facts or to hear with profit an interpretative lecture concerning them.

Perhaps no two great teachers have ever used precisely the same method or have followed the same procedure in the arrangement and carrying forward of their work. Some of the most inspiring teachers of English literature whom the American colleges have known were in the habit of reading to their classes, with proper emphasis and understanding, Shakspeare or Milton or Spenser, and thereby inspired their students to a lifelong reading of these classic writers and others of almost equal importance. A few well-known teachers of physics and of chemistry stirred their students by making before them certain fundamental and easily understood experiments and giving to these such interpretation as would make them fit easily and permanently into the fabric of the student's knowledge.

A real limitation upon the success of much college teaching of the present day is that a term is often half over before the student really knows what it is that he is studying. Every new subject, particularly such an one as law, or physics, or chemistry, or zoölogy, or economics, or social science, should be introduced by a short series of interpretative lectures and discussions that will make plain to the student what the subject is about, how it is related to other subjects of human knowledge and interest, and how it came to its present position of importance and influence in the intellectual life of man. Introductory and interpretative courses of this character were quite usual in the German universities when these were at the height of their fame and power from about 1860 until about 1890. No one who ever heard Professor Du Bois-Reymond of the University of Berlin give his Monday

evening lectures on the evolution of scientific thought since the Middle Ages, can ever forget the impression which they made upon him nor can he overestimate their value as an instructive and permanent element in his education. Given such an introductory and interpretative series of expositions, which in most cases may be reasonably brief, the student may then be plunged into the details of particular items or aspects of knowledge with a real understanding of what he is doing. Otherwise, he can only flounder amidst an embarrassing mass of detail with no general view whatever of the field in which he is at work, of its boundaries and limitations, or of its relations to other like fields of human interest and activity. There is a wide difference between the logical and the psychological method of approach to a new subject. In teaching it is the psychological method which should prevail.*

TEACHER OR RESEARCHER?

OCTOBER 6, 1902

The best teacher is a constant student, and the constant student sooner or later tends to become an investigator. The terms investigation and original research have been so parodied and abused of late, that their real significance is not understood and valued as it should be. Yet these terms stand for the idea which differentiates the university from the college. We shall not reach an ideal condition until every department in the University, without exception, regards itself as charged with the duty of investigating as well as with that of teaching. Among its advanced students there should always be a group of those who are being trained in the methods by which real investigation is alone possible; the spirit of investigation and the pursuit of new truth should pervade every university department from top to bottom.†

* Report for 1932-33, pp. 30-32.

† Report for 1901-2, pp. 25-26.

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

It is quite usual to hear criticism leveled against an academic teacher for not combining in himself the two very distinct characteristics of teaching skill and scholarly initiative in research. This criticism is unfair and ought not to go longer unanswered. Of great teachers there are not very many in a generation, and nothing is more certain than that such are born and not made. Of good teachers there are, on the other hand, a fair supply. These are the men and women who, by reason of sound if sometimes partial knowledge, orderly-mindedness, skill in simple and clear presentation, and a gift of sympathy, are able to stimulate youth to study and to think. To find fault with such man or woman because he or she is not able to make important contributions to knowledge is wholly beside the mark. Very few persons are able to make important contributions to knowledge, and such persons are only in the rarest instances good teachers. It is very often true that the most distinguished scholars and men of science in a university are among its poorest teachers. The reason is simple. Their intellectual interests lie elsewhere and they have neither the mental energy nor the fund of human sympathy to give to struggling and often ill-prepared youth who may come to them for instruction and advice. Once in a long while there appears a Huxley, or a Du Bois-Reymond, or a William G. Sumner, but the number of such is sadly few. It may be said of many great scholars as Mrs. Humphry Ward recently wrote of Bishop Stubbs, probably the greatest name among the English historians during the latter half of the nineteenth century: "He had no gifts — it was his chief weakness as a teacher — for creating a young school around him, setting one young man to work on this job, and another on that, as has been done with great success in many instances abroad. He was too reserved, too critical, perhaps too sensitive." A man such as this may, nevertheless, have great influence in the background of a university and add enormously to its repute, despite the fact that his work is almost as in-

dividual as if it were done in his own study in a remote village apart from university companionship and university association. The modern university will be glad, and will aim, to find place for scholars and men of science of each of these types and of every type. There is plenty of opportunity for the skillful teacher who is not especially original or vigorous in research, and there is always opportunity for the alert-minded man of high imagination and great power of concentration who can and does make a real addition to the world's knowledge. On the other hand, quite too much attention is paid to those who when they make some slight addition to their own stock of information fancy that the world's store of knowledge is thereby increased by a new discovery.*

* Report for 1918-19, pp. 24-25.

XVII

THE TEACHING OF THE SCIENCES

NEED OF BETTER TEACHING

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

FOR two generations a very considerable part, perhaps a major part, of the effort of educational systems and institutions has been expended upon the development of teaching and research in the natural and experimental sciences and in making adequate provision for this work in men, in laboratories and in apparatus. When the movement for extensive study of the natural and experimental sciences began, it was more or less stubbornly resisted by the college faculties of the day. Undoubtedly because of this fact, some scientific schools were founded quite apart from existing colleges and universities, such as the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute in 1824 and Stevens Institute in 1870. In other cases, schools of science were incorporated in existing institutions for higher education as distinct and more or less independent and autonomous units. This was the case at Harvard where the Lawrence Scientific School was founded in 1847, at Yale where the Sheffield Scientific School was founded in 1854 and given its present name in 1863, and at Columbia where the School of Mines was founded in 1864. Gradually, however, the opposition to science study and science teaching broke down, and these new and highly important subjects were incorporated everywhere as part of the program of study in the elementary school, in the secondary school, in the college and in the university. Meanwhile the domain of science itself has expanded by leaps and bounds. New knowledge of the most amazing and unsuspected kind has constantly been revealed by eager investigators. The steadily improving microscope and newly discovered instruments and methods of precision and measurement gave man a grasp of the infinitely small which no imagination could have forecast a few

years earlier. Applications of scientific knowledge to practical life and to industry are multiplied manifold, and the daily life of millions of human beings is revolutionized and made vastly more comfortable, more safe and more healthy in consequence.

The essential fact in all scientific study is the use and the comprehension of the scientific method. Nothing is to be taken for granted and no test, whether quantitative or qualitative, is to be overlooked. Every conclusion as it is reached is held subject to the results of verification, modification or overthrow by later inquiry or by the discovery of new methods and processes of research.

One would suppose that after a half-century of this experience and this discipline the popular mind would bear some traces of the influence of scientific method, and that it would be guided by that method, at least in part, in reaching results and in formulating policies in social and political life. If there be any evidence of such an effect, it is certainly not easy to find. Passion, prejudice, partisanship, unreason still sway men, whether as individuals or in the mass, precisely as if scientific method had never been heard of. How is it possible that with all the enormous advances of science and with all its literally stupendous achievements it has produced such negligible results on the mass temperament and the mass mind? This is a question which may well give us pause, for something must be lacking if intelligent men and women, long brought into contact with scientific method and scientific processes, pay no attention whatever to these, and show no effect of their influence, when making their private or public judgments.

One begins to suspect that the teachers of science themselves may have failed in making effective their science and their scientific method in this sphere of their larger usefulness. There can be no question that the decline in interest and authority of the ancient classics as educational instruments was hastened by, and indeed was in no small part due to, the manner and method of teaching those subjects that became substantially universal

some sixty years ago. Minute matters of grammatical, linguistic and archaeological importance were dwelt upon and magnified to the exclusion of the larger and broader interpretation of the meaning of the life, the thought, and the civilization of the ancient Greeks and Romans. Emphasis was increasingly laid upon the training of accurate and meticulous classical scholars, which was all well enough in its way, but which was something quite different from using the ancient classics as effective and stimulating educational instruments for the great mass of men. It is a sorry, but safe, reflection that had the classics been properly taught and presented in school and in college they would not now be in their parlous situation. Can it be possible that something of the same sort is about to happen in the case of the natural and experimental sciences? If these subjects are to be presented only for the purpose of training specialists, and if the methods to be followed are those that, while appropriate for investigation, have no relation whatever to interpretation, then it may well be that in another generation general interest in the natural and experimental sciences and general knowledge of their meaning and significance will have greatly declined. If these disintegrating forces are at work, then it is quite useless to cite present statistics as to the extent and popularity of science teaching and science study as evidence that existing conditions will continue indefinitely.

If one desires to be a physicist, a chemist, or a biologist, and is ready and willing to devote his time and his energy to that end, then the methods now in vogue in the colleges and universities are excellent. If, however, one wishes to know what physics, chemistry and biology are about, how they came into existence, what has been their history, who have contributed in most important fashion to their advance, how they are related to each other and to other branches of knowledge, and what is the significance of their present conclusions and applications, then he will find it very difficult indeed to get guidance or help from any teacher of physics, of chemistry, or of biology. In fact, many

of these teachers do not possess this sort of knowledge. This was not always the case. Faraday could interpret as well as investigate and stimulate investigation; Helmholtz and Du Bois-Reymond were past masters of the art of scientific exposition and interpretation; so were Huxley and Tyndall and Kelvin. Why must the science teachers of today turn their backs upon the example and the achievements of these great masters, and neglect the opportunity which is daily offered to make science and scientific method a real and commanding factor in the life of tens of thousands of human beings by explaining to them what science is all about? The making of a few score of admirable specialists, the training of a few hundred research students and the annual production of a small army of youth with narrow, if minute, information useful in some particular vocation, is a sorry substitute for reaching the great mass of the population with the influence and the ideals of scientific inquiry and scientific method.

Nothing can so quickly or so surely kill any subject of instruction and deprive it of its influence as an educational instrument as uninspiring teaching or the stubborn insistence upon false methods. Surely, the example of the ancient classics ought to suffice. They were killed largely by those who taught them. Men of light and leading are everywhere trying to resurrect the classics from their academic grave and to reestablish them where they belong as a chief foundation of all liberal education. It would be poor business indeed if, while the ancient classics are being resurrected, the natural and experimental sciences should be led by their teachers into the valley of the shadow of academic death.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1927

In previous Annual Reports attention has been directed to the fact that scientific study as an educational instrument has fallen far short of the high expectations that were formed of it and for it when the scientific movement in education began some sixty

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 24-28.

years ago. Meanwhile the content of the natural and physical sciences has been multiplied manyfold. Truly revolutionary discoveries and inventions have followed each other with amazing rapidity, and both the form and the material of daily life have been made over as a result of new scientific knowledge and its application.

The scientific method is everywhere extolled and within certain limits is rigorously applied. Yet the public mind, reinforced each year by a veritable army of youth which is marched through scientific laboratories and lecture-rooms, museums and observatories, is as untouched by scientific method as if no such thing existed. Even men of science themselves, when out of sight of their own laboratories, betray the most astounding willingness to become the victims of rumors, dogmatic assertions and emotional appeals of every sort. The fact of the matter would seem to be that scientific training and scientific method, despite all the time and labor and money that have been lavished upon them, have thus far failed to take hold of the minds and temperaments of vast numbers of those who have been offered scientific training in greater or lesser part.

Reflection on these exceptionally interesting facts prompts various queries and suggestions. Part of the difficulty may be found in the fact that science has been suffering from what may be described as a superiority complex which has prevented it from realizing its true place in the scheme of things. There is certainly no region or realm into which science does not or ought not to aim to penetrate, *on the plane in which science moves*. But that plane is, as every scholar in the field of human thinking must realize, a subordinate one. It is the plane upon which the world appears as made up not of definite and independent objects, but of infinite series of changing units whose interrelations and interdependences are all-important and all-controlling. To science no object is independent. Each depends on every other and dependence — relativity — is the controlling principle of the universe. There remains, however, that still higher plane upon which the

universe appears as a self-dependent, self-related, self-active totality. It is on this plane that philosophy lives and moves and has its being, and on this plane that art and music and literature find the inspiration and the motive of those insights, aspirations and intuitions which pave the path to beauty.

This is neither the time nor the place unduly to argue these fundamental principles, but it is the time and the place to point out that if science as an educational instrument has not done what might reasonably be expected, it is first of all because it has not recognized the limitations that rest upon its place and function in the scheme of things. In the second place, science has been in large part badly taught and in large part is badly taught today. The sole reliance upon the laboratory method of introducing students to an understanding of scientific method, scientific fact and scientific accomplishment is well-nigh disastrous. For the narrow specialist it does its work well, but for him who wishes to know something of modern science as an instrument of culture and as a branch of organized knowledge, it is not the correct point of departure. The laboratory method is the true method of discovery but it is not the true method of elementary exposition and instruction. First of all the student approaching for the first time any part of the field of scientific knowledge should have that field described and explained to him, its relation to other fields of scientific knowledge pointed out and the main lines of its historic development described and illustrated. The student of physics, for example, should be shown how physics has come to be; where and how it originated; what are its relations to mathematics, to astronomy, to chemistry; when and how did it pass from what may be called its astrological to its astronomical phase; who were the personalities who first unfolded and defined fundamental physical facts and laws; what did they look like, when did they live, what was their relation to their contemporaries. In other words, the student approaching the subject of physics should be made to feel that physics instead of being a very small part of a cross-section of the world of today is really

a splendid intellectual discipline with a long and notable history, and that it has come to be what it is by steps and stages that can be easily marked out and mastered. The moment the student gets this view of physics, his study of it takes hold of him with redoubled power because he sees himself dealing with a vast and continuing human interest. Then is the time for the laboratory method to be drawn upon to show him the technique of present-day knowledge and present-day discovery. In short, the natural and physical sciences have an enormous value as cultural subjects which has been in large part lost by bad methods of teaching and presentation. The specialist gets from his study of science all that he needs for his specialty, but science meanwhile stands apart from the general stream of cultural influence and development. Faraday and Maxwell, Huxley, and Tyndall, Berthelot and Pasteur, Helmholtz and Kelvin, as well as our own Pupin and Millikan, are scientific teachers of a different type. They all have in high degree the power of so interpreting science that at their hands it becomes a genuine instrument for the improvement of popular thinking and public action and a vitally important element of broad and fine culture.

As was indicated in an earlier Annual Report, no small part of the influence which caused the decline and fall of the ancient classics as a chief instrument of education was contributed by the unhappy methods of instruction pursued by the classical teachers themselves. If now science is to be sentenced to a similar fate, there will be nothing left of the tested educational instruments, and the next generation will be sentenced to the very poor and pretentious substitute of vocational instruction.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

It is hard to imagine anything more sad than the decline and fall of classical scholarship and classical teaching in American education, with the resultant paralysis in the development of our national understanding and our national cultivation. The changed

* Report for 1926-27, pp. 24-27.

conditions of life and of knowledge being what they are, it would have been quite impossible under any circumstances, as well as unwise, for the ancient classics to maintain their one-time dominance of the best type of secondary school and college education. An appropriate readjustment of their place in the educational program would, however, have been something very different from the substantially complete downfall which has overtaken them. The Greek language and literature, Greek history, Greek eloquence, Greek philosophy and Greek institutional life, a knowledge of all of which is a *sine qua non* to an understanding of the intellectual and the spiritual life of today and to preparation for full participation in that life, have passed quite outside the range either of knowledge or of interest of the present generation of American students and their teachers. Latin, which bade fair to travel the same road, has been checked somewhat in its decline, but nevertheless its situation is parlous in the extreme.

The effects of all this are apparent on every hand. They reveal themselves in a lack of historical knowledge and perspective, in a lack of acquaintance with what is the very best and most fruitful of human experience, and in a lack of understanding of the significance of those literally colossal achievements of the mind and spirit which made ancient Greece and Rome immortal, no matter what fate may befall their history, their literature and their institutions as elements of an educational program. With all these have come also increasing carelessness of good manners and a sorry lowering of literary and artistic standards.

This decline and fall, it must be admitted, has been hastened and made certain by the attitude and influence of a host of those who were themselves teachers of the classics and who were engaged in the promotion of classical scholarship. They saw fit to supplant understanding of the ancient world with a myriad of minutiae of highly specialized learning, and to push far into the background the vitally important art of interpretation which is the essential element of real teaching.

Following the remarkable series of discoveries which began

something more than a hundred years ago and which absorbed the attention of classical scholars in Germany, in France, more or less in England, and increasingly in the United States, the classical teacher too often left off the useful task of exposition and interpretation and became a highly specialized research worker in some narrowly bounded field of philology, of epigraphy or of archaeology. Into academic recesses such as these naturally no considerable company of students could possibly follow. Classical studies became identified in the public mind with this sort of minute and highly technical knowledge, and they rapidly lost their commanding and inspiring position as the seat and center of the study of humane letters. So it came about that in time classical studies in the schools and colleges of the United States were first asphyxiated, then embalmed, then incinerated, and finally placed in well-decorated funeral urns in the academic columbarium by those who should have been their glad and eager companions, exponents and interpreters. Minute technical studies have been substituted for literary and aesthetic appreciation and interpretation. When that happened the end was in sight. If there is ever again to be a genuine revival of classical learning — and nothing would more help and uplift American education and American life — it can only follow upon the influence of a group of scholars who are inspired by the ideals at which Greek and Roman art and letters aimed, and who are endowed with a capacity to interpret these in terms to be understood in the light of the world of today. Now and again there is a flash of lightning against this darkly clouded sky that comes from the direction of Oxford or Cambridge or Scotland or France or Italy, but it must be confessed that these moments of illumination are few and far between.

Strange as it may seem, the academic subjects whose rise contributed powerfully to pushing the ancient classics into the background appear now to be themselves in danger of coming under the influence of forces wholly similar to those which have destroyed the prestige of the ancient classics and any considerable

knowledge of them. The natural and experimental sciences are of fascinating interest to every one who aspires to regard himself as an educated man. For some four hundred years the subject matter of these sciences has been steadily and rapidly expanding, and as scientific method has increased its power of penetration and multiplied its capacities the world about us has yielded one amazing secret after another until today the limits of scientific knowledge are measured only by the distance from the incredibly vast to the inconceivably small. Earlier and apparently well-established divisions of scientific territory are steadily disappearing. No one can longer tell where physics ends and chemistry begins, and now biophysics has come into existence to burrow through the wall which has separated physics from biology. Mathematics, the earliest tool and instrument of abstract thought, then long regarded as little more than a curious method of playing with the symbolic and the unreal, has reasserted itself at the hands of Einstein as the clue to the structure and fundamental laws of the physical universe. The whole round world has become the playground of the mind. Hypothesis quickly leaps into demonstration and demonstration then with lightning-like rapidity becomes the foundation of new and strange superstructures. To be ignorant of all this, or to be careless of it, is to put oneself outside the pale of that kind and wealth of understanding which are essential to liberal education.

Nevertheless, there are not wanting signs that teachers and research workers in the field of natural and experimental science may yet do for their favorite knowledges precisely what the teachers of the ancient classics have done for an understanding of the life and literature of ancient Greece and Rome. Today if the university student wishes to make himself a specialist in any one of the various fields in which science presents itself to him, the largest ability, the widest knowledge and the most splendid laboratory equipment are at his service. He may quickly be drawn and pushed into the secret places of physics, of chemistry, of biology, of geology, of astronomy or even of mathematics;

but how fares it with him who, not wishing to become a specialist in any of these fields, seeks for accurate and inspiring understanding of what all this scientific discovery and progress is about? Too often he asks for the bread of interpretation and is given only the stone of minute experimentation.

It would indeed be a cruel fate if the natural and experimental sciences, after their full half-century of increasing educational dominance and with their quite unlimited educational possibilities, were now to be sent the way of the ancient classics, and should come to be generally used and known only in their applied and technical aspects, primarily for economic reasons and from motives of gain.

O, what a fall was there, my countrymen!

If the natural and experimental sciences are to escape this fate, those who teach and who represent them in the academic life of the world must be able to follow the example of a Huxley and a Tyndall, of a Helmholtz and a Du Bois-Reymond, of a Pupin and a Millikan, of an Eddington and a Jeans, and those like-minded and like-spirited with them, who can and will interpret the facts, the findings, the methods and the lessons of the natural and experimental sciences to that multiplying host of intelligent men and women who seek a liberal education in the true sense of that term. Narrowly limited specialization between mounting walls of closely restricted interest, knowledge and skill will not do. That way lies the path to the academic graveyard.*

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 24-27.

XVIII

THE TEACHING OF THE CLASSICS AND MODERN LANGUAGES

A REVIVAL OF CLASSICAL STUDIES?

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

As to the present state of the classics at Columbia, it may be pertinent to point out that the number of students taking courses in Greek and Latin has diminished very greatly. This change has perhaps been inevitable, since Latin and Greek literature, art, and life usually seem to the young American very remote from the life of today. This movement has been hastened, however, by the rise of many new subjects which were bound to develop rapidly and to absorb much if not most of the undergraduate's time and interest. These new subjects are so many and so widely extended that their representatives have often insisted not only that Greek and Latin be no longer prescribed, but that programs of study be arranged which make it difficult for the student who wishes to take an extended course in Greek and Latin to do so.

A second reason for the decline in the number of those who study Greek and Latin in college is undoubtedly to be found in the manner in which those subjects have been taught. There has been too little attempt to give the student a sufficient mastery of the language to enable him to read it rapidly and to grasp quickly and surely the essential idea of the author read, although these very ideas have played so large a part in the development of the modern world. There has been too little emphasis laid upon this fact and very little correlation established between the study of the classics and other fields of knowledge to which the classics stand in important relationship. It is certainly desirable that ancient types of literature be studied in immediate association with specific modern examples of similar types.

A long step forward has been taken by the recent action of the

Faculty of Columbia College in making the entrance examination in Greek and Latin to consist chiefly of translation at sight. While it is perhaps not easy for anybody but an exceptionally gifted student to acquire this power, better results than were formerly had are surely possible and are, in fact, already being reached. It is the aim of the teachers of Greek and Latin at the present time to bring their students much more closely into touch than heretofore with ancient ideas and ideals, with ancient life, and with ancient political, moral, and social relationships, as well as to emphasize more effectively the relations of Latin with English and French and of Greek with the terminology of modern science. It is felt that in the farther development of such courses as those that have to do with the life and thought of the Greeks and Romans, with Greek and Roman manners and customs, and Greek and Roman art, there lies the promise of a new revival of classical study.

Among the difficulties in the way of bringing about a revival of interest in classical study is the fact that the undergraduate student, like the modern world in general, wishes to see immediate practical results from his efforts. He unfortunately lives almost wholly under close limitations of both time and space; he lives in the present and in the play of his own personality within his own community. The peoples and literatures of long ago seem too remote to gain his interest, and even when their relation to his own day is pointed out, he is apt to ask why a knowledge of the latter will not suffice. The only answer is, of course, as Gilbert Murray has wisely said, that the study of the present isolates, whereas the study of far distant times, if these be really great, sets one free. Perhaps real philosophy and ripe cultivation can come only late in life, and it is no wonder therefore that the modern student, intensely practical and the child of his own age, cannot see the value of the larger life into which he might easily enter.

Something may also be due to the disinclination, very marked in America, even among the so-called educated classes, to gain

a real acquaintance with other languages than their own. Linguistic study as such, even for purely practical purposes, has not often appealed to the young American. He prefers to batter his way through the world with his own peculiar English, rather than to smooth out his path by gaining a mastery of French, Italian, Spanish, or German. Professor Paul Shorey has called attention to the fact that the study of the older forms of the Romance and Germanic languages, never very popular among American students, is already beginning to go the way of the study of the ancient classics.

The experience of those young Americans who served in Europe during the war seems likely to affect them in one of two ways: some of them will have gained an insight into the necessity and value of knowing a foreign language, while others will only have acquired increased contempt for those foreigners who are so unfortunate as not to be able to speak English.

There is food for thought in the statement made by Dr. Parkin, Executive Officer of the Rhodes Trust, in a recent article on the Rhodes Scholarships, wherein he points to the markedly high proportion of failures on the part of American candidates to pass the very moderate examination required for entrance to Oxford University, and the fact that this high percentage of failures is found not alone in the classical languages but in the so-called more modern subjects as well. May it not be true that the American student resents the demand for the close and long-continued application necessary to an accurate knowledge of any difficult subject? Is it not true that this attitude has been carefully fostered for years past by many school and college teachers who, themselves without a sound educational philosophy, have spread abroad false notions of thoroughness and discipline among the unfortunate students in their charge? Too many schools and colleges are deserting the familiar grounds of sound educational principle for the shifting sands of expediency, popularity, and quick, if unsatisfactory, results.*

* Report for 1918-19, pp. 48-51.

THE MODERN LANGUAGES

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

The provision thus far made for instruction in the Spanish language and literature is deplorably insufficient. Every year there is a demand from students, particularly of law and of engineering, but coming in part also from those who expect to enter business life, for more extensive and more practical instruction in the Spanish language. It will not be possible for the people of the United States to enter into close relation with the peoples of the other American republics until the Spanish language is more generally spoken and written by educated persons here, and until there is a fuller appreciation of the meaning and significance of the history and civilization of those American peoples which have developed out of Spain. It will not be enough to teach Spanish literature and to teach students to read Spanish. They must also be taught to speak it in order that in business and in social intercourse they may be able to use it with freedom as a medium of expression.

The same thing is true of the instruction in French and in German. Elaborate arguments are made by men of weight and of authority to the effect that the ability to speak French and to speak German is much less important than the ability to read those languages and the possession of some general knowledge of their literatures. This is a sadly perverted point of view. The man who is able to read a page of Taine, or perhaps of Anatole France, and who finds himself in a French business house or a French drawing-room without the ability to express his wants or his thought in a single well-formed and intelligible sentence, feels like a fool; and he deserves to feel like a fool. The man who cannot speak and write French and German does not know French and German, and it is sheer folly to suppose that this lack of ability to use a great educational instrument and a vitally important tool in business and social intercourse is compensated for by a more or less superficial knowledge of the classic literature

of the French and German peoples or by the capacity to read a French or German book with more or less constant dependence upon the dictionary. Indeed, it would be highly advantageous if all instruction in the French, German, Spanish or Italian languages and literatures were conducted in those languages after the first year of college work in them.

The asphyxiation of Greek and Latin as school and college subjects, which began a generation ago, was in no small part due to the industrious but misguided efforts of school and college teachers of those subjects. It would be in the highest degree deplorable if the modern European languages were to suffer a similar fate and for a like reason.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

The American college is still far from realizing the goal of modern language teaching described by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow in his inaugural address when entering upon his work as Professor of Modern Languages in Bowdoin College, September 2, 1830. Nearly ninety years ago Mr. Longfellow was moved to say:

A knowledge of the principal languages of modern Europe forms in our day an essential part of a liberal education. . . . I cannot regard the study of a language as the pastime of a listless hour. To trace the progress of the human mind through the progressive development of language; to learn how other nations thought, and felt, and spake; to enrich the understanding by opening upon it new sources of knowledge; and by speaking many tongues to become a citizen of the world; these are objects worthy of the exertion their attainment demands at our hands.

The mere acquisition of a language is not the ultimate object: It is a means to be employed in the acquisition of something which lies beyond. I should therefore deem my duty but half performed were I to limit my exertions to the narrow bounds of grammatical rules: Nay, that I had done little for the intellectual culture of a pupil when I had merely put an instrument into his hands, without explaining to him its most important uses.

Mr. Longfellow goes on throughout this notable address to give a general outline of what he conceived to be his field

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 28-29.

of academic duty, and drew a picture as satisfying as it was inviting.

Except in rare cases it cannot be doubted that the study of modern foreign languages has been carried on quite apart from any study of the life, the institutions, the art, and the civilization of the peoples whose languages they are, save that opportunity is given to read, more or less haltingly, a few of the great literary masterpieces which a particular language enshrines. The very name of our academic departments indicates a narrowness of view and purpose which we should now quickly strive to outgrow. Instead of a Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, for example, there should be, let us say, a Department of the Latin Peoples, in which might be assembled not only those teachers who give instruction in the Romance languages and literatures, but also those who give instruction in the history, the government, the art, and the architecture of those peoples that are of direct Latin descent. In similar fashion there might be Departments of the Teutonic or Germanic Peoples, of the Slavic Peoples and of the Oriental Peoples. The Department of Classical Philology is already appropriately named, since the broad interpretation of that term is inclusive of the history, the institutions, the art, and the life of the ancient peoples of Greece and Rome. The chief thing is to cease thinking of a language as something apart or as a mere tool for technical use, and to come to regard it as a pathway leading to new and inspiring regions of understanding and of appreciation. The chief purpose in studying French should be to gain an understanding and appreciation of France, and that cannot follow upon a mere study of the language as a form and instrument of literary expression alone, vitally important though that be.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1929

Despite the very marked development in modern language instruction throughout the schools and colleges of the United

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 26-27.

States, these languages as subjects of study have never quite outgrown the position originally assigned them as extracurricular activities. There was a time when music and drawing, together with French and German, were frankly classed and treated as outside and in addition to the ordinary and normal program of study. Although modern language instruction was offered in Columbia College at a very early period in its history, it disappeared entirely, and even as late as 1880 no undergraduate was offered instruction in French, Italian or Spanish, although he might get certain very limited instruction in German as a purely optional subject, if he chose to do so.

Even today the effect of this point of view and this habit of thinking persists throughout the country and offers a stumbling-block of no inconsiderable size and importance in the path of progress toward making genuine knowledge of modern European languages more widespread among Americans. It often excites surprise in Europe and in South America, and justly so, that even American university teachers, including scholars and men of science of consequence, who can read French or German or Italian or Spanish more or less stumblingly, are wholly lacking in the capacity to carry on conversation in any one of those tongues or to make themselves agreeable and interesting in a European or South American drawing-room. This lamentable condition is perhaps in the way of being remedied, but that complete remedy will take some time is very obvious. There is no reason why the educated and the cultivated man should not have speaking knowledge of at least two of the four chief modern European languages. To attain such knowledge is not difficult, and the addition which it makes to one's pleasure, to one's comfort, and to one's satisfaction is literally enormous. The English-speaking American is pretty generally of opinion that the world is his oyster and there is no reason why he should concern himself to master the spoken language of another people whom he persists in looking upon as foreign or alien, despite all the teach-

ings of history and all the interpenetrations of literature, science and philosophy.

Just now modern language teaching at Columbia is being steadily strengthened and its practical character increased. The mere knowledge of the grammar of a foreign language, together with some survey of its literature, is not sufficient. There must be command of it for spoken use. Among other things, such command would speedily make a breach in that wall of prejudice which is so constantly painted to look like patriotism. The *Maison Française*, the *Deutsches Haus*, and the *Casa Italiana* are admirable agencies well adapted to inspire and to assist in increasing and deepening knowledge not only of the literatures and the institutions, but of the languages, of France, of Germany and of Italy. Apparently it will not be long before a *Casa Hispánica* and a *Japan House* take their place by the side of those excellent institutions just named. The success of the undertakings which these buildings envisage will be in large part measured by their ability to stimulate teaching scholars and students alike to gain a capacity to speak and to write the languages of the peoples with whose civilizations and institutions these buildings serve to bring us in constantly closer relationship.*

* Report for 1928-29, pp. 38-40.

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PART SIX

UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

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XIX

PHASES OF UNIVERSITY GOVERNMENT

THE MEANING OF "UNIVERSITY"

NOVEMBER 6, 1933

IN earlier reports, particularly those for the years 1925 and 1931, fundamental questions relating to the organization and development of universities in the United States were presented in some detail. Each year continues to make it plain, however, that the confusion in the public mind, and even in what may be called the educational mind, between college and university still persists and is obviously most perplexing to European visitors and observers. It is this confusion which makes American educational statistics of higher education, whether official or unofficial, as these are printed and widely circulated, wholly meaningless for comparison with statistics in other countries, owing to the lack of any clearly thought-out and sound method of classifying institutions of higher education according to their real character rather than according to their self-assumed names. Nothing is easier than for a college in this country to call itself a university, even though it has not the first characteristic of university organization, method or ideal. All it need have is ambition to be something which it is not and cannot be. Moreover, the Government of the United States, through the Office of Education in the Department of the Interior, persists in classifying universities and colleges as either public or private. There is, and can be, no private university or private college in the United States, unless, perchance, some state or the District of Columbia be sufficiently loose in its legislation to permit an individual or a corporation to seize upon either name and use it for private profit. Every genuine college and university in the United States is a public institution and is grounded upon the law of the state in which it exists. The only real distinction between these institutions grows

out of their differing methods of financial support and control. They are either tax-supported or non-tax-supported colleges and universities. In either case they are public institutions. The mere notion that anyone could establish and maintain a private university would not occur to a person with any sense of humor.

It must be repeated over and over again that the ground for all this confusion arises in failure to distinguish between the three-fold division of the period following upon the elementary school which exists in America, and the two-fold division of that period which exists on the Continent of Europe. In America this period is divided between secondary school, college and university, while in Continental Europe it is divided between *lycée* or *Gymnasium* and university. The American college, it must again be repeated for the hundredth time, covers the field which on the Continent of Europe is occupied by the upper years of the *lycée* or *Gymnasium* and the first year of the university. All this confusion is made still more confounded by the fact that our colleges derived their origin from England, where the term university was used in still another sense and was, in the case of both Oxford and Cambridge, an organization composed of largely independent and self-governing colleges, rather than something built upon those colleges as the American university is supposed to be built upon the American college. Out of all this arises the fact that while there are but 11 universities in England, 4 in Scotland and 1 in Wales, 5 in Belgium and 8 in Holland, 17 in France and 23 in Germany, 3 in Austria, 4 in Hungary, 25 in Italy, and 11 in Spain, there are no fewer than 263 universities, colleges and technological institutions in the United States approved by the Association of American Universities. Of these 36 are institutions having a more or less complete university organization equipped with schools for graduate study and with some, at least, of the usual professional or technological schools. This leaves 227 colleges and technological institutions which are approved by the Association of American Universities. On the other hand, various books of reference give the public a quite different

impression. The *World Almanac* lists 579 universities and colleges in the United States, the *Directory* of the United States Bureau of Education lists 567, and the *Statesman's Year Book* for 1933 is able to find no fewer than 1,078 universities, colleges and professional schools.

It so happens that every genuine university in the United States has a college incorporated in its educational system, and in the vast majority of cases the college looms larger before the public than does the university. It is the undergraduates of the college who carry on intercollegiate sport and who in a hundred different ways interest the public and attract its attention. The older body of more advanced students is very little in the public eye and is composed of mature and well-disciplined men and women who have fixed their minds on a definite intellectual goal and are doing their best to reach it with credit and with honor.

What may be called the interpenetration of the American college and the American university has very greatly influenced both institutions. While logically, no doubt, it would have been better to separate each type of institution, as is done on the Continent of Europe, historical conditions and sentimental relationships have made this quite impossible in the United States, since, with the exception of Johns Hopkins University and Clark University, every existing American university is the outgrowth of an earlier and older college, and for both of these an organization for undergraduate work was quickly provided. It is important to dwell from time to time upon these fundamental facts and distinctions, since there can be no clear thinking relative to higher education in the United States and its problems unless they are known and observed.*

THE AIMS OF ADMINISTRATION

OCTOBER 6, 1902

Any separation between financial and educational control in university administration would be as unwise as it is impractic-

* Report for 1932-33, pp. 26-28.

cable; but Columbia University has been fortunate, and in line with the best thought on the subject, in placing the initiative in all matters of education in the hands of the Faculties or the University Council. We have been unusually successful in adjusting the administration and oversight of the University to modern conditions, and almost every policy now urged by students of educational administration is already in operation here.*

OCTOBER 3, 1904

The general efficiency of the University is greatly increased and the burden of administration which rests upon the teaching staff is much lightened, by the unification and simplification of University administration which goes steadily on. The care of the buildings and grounds and the direction of the janitorial force of the four corporations now included in the University are all in the hands of the Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds, and the University Librarian is the responsible officer in charge of every collection of books anywhere within the University's bounds. The unification of the registration system is almost completed, and doubtless will soon be entirely so. As each step in this direction of administrative unification has been taken, it has been followed by just the advantages and savings that were predicted for it. The administrative machinery of a great university is necessarily large and complicated, but it should run noiselessly, smoothly, and without sensible friction. This end can be accomplished by following the rules which prevail in any great business undertaking and putting every detail of any one division or class of work under a single responsible head, with entire freedom to solve his own problems in his own way so long as the University is efficiently served.

The influence and authority of the University Council grow greater year by year, and any successful movement to control or direct the opinion of the University must of necessity involve the Council's coöperation. At present, the Council has no such

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 21-22.

direct control over the action of other Faculties as it has over the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy, and Pure Science, but its moral influence on any doubtful question arising in any part of the University would certainly be strong, and probably determining. This fact makes for legislative harmony as the policy above outlined makes for administrative simplicity and efficiency.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1907

The various activities and processes which, taken together, constitute what is known as the administration of the University, are not ends in themselves, but means. The end is the purpose or group of purposes for which the University exists. To the accomplishment of that end all administrative procedure should be subordinated, and the less conspicuous the administrative machinery, the more effectively is it serving its purpose. The history of the development of administrative procedure is not unlike the history of certain evolutionary processes. When a new need is felt, a new organ or instrument comes into existence to meet that need. This organ may be simple or complex, but the simpler it is the greater the likelihood of its being effective. A great many persons who are either naturally inefficient or who have become inefficient as a result of their own activities, are severely critical of persons or instrumentalities which perform their duties promptly and well. A university administration is efficient when it promotes, to the extent of its capacity, the effectiveness of each and every element in the educational system of the university and an increasing coöperation between them.

In a university so large and so many-sided as our own, there are an infinite number of details to be cared for, if the work of teaching and investigation is to go forward smoothly and without interruption. Many of these details are best cared for by officers other than those of instruction, but not a few of them must, by reason of their character, fall to the lot of those who are

* Report for 1903-4, pp. 23-24.

members of the teaching staff of the University. It is entirely clear that the distribution of the resulting duties among the members of the teaching staff must be so arranged as to avoid overloading any single teacher or group of teachers, and yet so as to get the work done with the least expenditure of time and effort. Experience proves beyond cavil the wisdom of the opinion which Washington expressed in his letter of September 24, 1792, addressed to Henry Knox, Secretary of War: *

My observation [Washington wrote] on every employment in life is, that, wherever and whenever one person is found adequate to the discharge of a duty by close application thereto, it is worse executed by two persons, and scarcely done at all if three or four are employed therein.

The assumption derived from the political views of the old English Whigs, that responsibility must be divided, and that every exercise of power must be checked and counterchecked, is quite false when applied to the administrative procedure of today. The sound principle, on the contrary, is the one which grants large responsibility to individual officers and then holds them to strict accountability for its discharge. Our developments of the past twenty-five years have all been in this direction. The University correspondence, the registration of students, the admission of candidates to the various schools, the discipline of students, have all been committed to special agencies, usually individuals, and the work has in every case been increasingly well done.

By reason of these provisions for the administration of the University's business, the teachers and scholars are set free in increasing measure for the work which is peculiarly theirs. A great deal yet remains to be done, in order to reduce the burden of correspondence which rests upon not a few University teachers, but there are no funds at hand with which to do it. With this single exception almost all routine that can, in the nature of the case, be taken from the shoulders of the teaching staff, has been

* *Writings of George Washington*, edited by Worthington Chauncey Ford, XII, 191.

so taken. Wherever the administrative officers fall below the standard of effectiveness which they ought to reach, the failure is traceable, I think, in every case, to lack of funds with which to make provision for the work that is to be done.

During the past year or two a number of writers in the public press have expressed the opinion that in some way or other the university career is unfavorably affected by the methods of university administration that have been developed in the United States. The contrary is the case, at least so far as those institutions are concerned which may properly be taken as representative of the best that American development has yet reached. In those institutions the scholar of capacity has nothing to fear save the burden of the new obligations which increasing usefulness and expanding reputation bring to him. He is unrestricted in his liberty to teach what he likes and as he likes. He chooses, either directly or indirectly, his own subordinates and his own associates. He formulates, so far as he can impress his views and convictions upon his colleagues, the educational policies of the institution that he serves. As our civilization grows older and more regard is paid to those who know, he finds himself in an increasingly important and responsible position toward the public. Such books and apparatus as he requires for his personal studies and researches are provided not only liberally but lavishly to the limit of the funds at the disposal of the university corporation, and sometimes even beyond that limit. There never has been a time when the academic career was so attractive as it is today, and that hundreds of the best and most ambitious young men in America have chosen it and are choosing it, the rolls of the universities of the land clearly prove.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

The office and value of administration in a modern university are not yet clearly understood. Indeed, administration has been defined by some one whose wit does not wholly hide his as-

* Report for 1906-7, pp. 24-27.

pirations for anarchy as "doing extremely well what had better not be done at all." The task of university administration is the clearly defined but difficult one of making an environment in which scholars and teachers can work agreeably, effectively and undisturbed. It is everywhere and always subordinate to the intellectual life and activity of the university, but it is vitally important if the wisest use is to be made of limited resources, if waste and confusion are to be prevented, and if the conditions surrounding teaching and investigation are to be such as to make most easily possible the prosecution of successful intellectual endeavor.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1920

Perhaps in no other respect has the University, during the past few years, made greater progress than in making provision for the oversight of the health of both officers and students. Columbia has gotten far away from the notion that its only responsibility toward its students is to provide them with scholarly instruction. The conception of education which here prevails includes instruction to be sure, but it relegates instruction to its proper place in any sound scheme of truly educational endeavor. Mental and physical health, comfortable housing and good food come before either textbooks or laboratories as educational instrumentalities. The University Medical Officer and his assistants stand guard over the health of the University, not for the purpose of doing the ordinary work of a physician in treating and curing disease, but for the purpose of keeping officers and students in good health, and of preventing the onset of those ailments and illnesses that may by care be so easily prevented. The practical results are extraordinary and can be testified to by hundreds of officers and students. This service is provided by the University without charge and in fulfilment of what it conceives to be a part of its duty toward its members.†

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 1-2.

† Report for 1910-20, p. 9.

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

From the beginning the plan for the development and strengthening of the Medical School has included making the professors of clinical subjects University professors in fact as well as in name, by calling upon them for full-time academic service and by providing for them adequate salaries. The Statutes of the University, Section 65, have for many years contained the following definition of full-time service, which will hereafter apply to officers of instruction and research in the Medical School precisely as to those in other parts of the University:

No officer of instruction shall be employed in any occupation which interferes with the thorough, efficient, and earnest performance of the duties of his office.

The responsibility for determining when, in any particular case, this provision of the Statutes may seem to be violated rests upon the President. For these reasons it has not been necessary for the University, in establishing full-time service for professors of clinical subjects, to adopt any of the methods, some of them fantastic and bizarre, that are understood to have been proposed elsewhere. The University's own standards and ideals made provision for all that was necessary. The fact is that much of the recent public discussion as to full-time service on the part of teachers of medical subjects has been quite beside the point. It has of course been necessary to break up what was left of the old-time proprietary school system under which a clinical teacher frequently felt that his academic obligation was subordinate to his private professional practice. That point of view had, however, begun to disappear years ago and very little, if anything, now remains of it. On the other hand, it is one of the main objects of the modern university to keep its teachers and organizers of research from becoming too academic, too narrowly limited to their immediate university work, and too remote from the happenings in the world about them. The modern college and university teacher, and most of all the teacher in a

school of law, of medicine, of engineering, of architecture, or of journalism, needs frequent and many points of contact with the practical affairs of life in order to increase his effectiveness as a member of the university. Arbitrarily to deprive a university officer of such contacts and such opportunities for practical experience, even when they bring pecuniary reward, is to decrease and not to increase his scientific and educational usefulness. The only point to be guarded is that set out in the provision of the University Statutes that has just been quoted.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

In this connection [with regard to an "administrative board" for the School of Business] it is appropriate to point out that the administrative board is an administrative device that is tending to supplant, either directly or indirectly, the older Faculty organization. This is coming about by a natural process of evolution and is due to the fact that such Faculty business as cannot be confided to administrative officers working under specific grants of power is best cared for by a relatively small legislative body. This may be an administrative board or it may be a committee on instruction, growing out of the older Faculty itself, but the general effect is the same. The larger Faculties will continue as original sources of authority in all matters pertaining to educational policy, as well as for the discussion of larger educational problems and principles and for the choice of representatives to sit in various other University bodies.†

NOVEMBER 5, 1923

Columbia University is its own most severe critic. It has resisted the vice, or the virtue, of complacency, and constantly examines and reexamines its own organization and activities with a view to their betterment. During the past year no part of the University has escaped this searching of the spirit. The Faculty of Columbia College has been studying how best to establish and

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 5-7.

† Report for 1920-21, pp. 17-18.

introduce a course introductory to the study of the natural and experimental sciences to parallel the course introductory to the study of contemporary civilization established four years ago. The Faculty of Applied Science has had under earnest consideration the question of the adequacy and wisdom of its present program of study and of the existing high standard required for admission to its rolls. The Faculty of Medicine has been strengthening both its laboratory and its clinical teaching, and, like the Faculty of Applied Science, has under consideration the whole question of its program in order to determine how far the Medical School program of today is satisfactory when measured by the demands of the practising physician and surgeon. The Faculty of Law has carried to successful completion its plans for the organization of advanced instruction and research in the field of public and private law, in connection with which the degree of Doctor of Law (Doctor Juris) has now been authorized. The non-professional graduate Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy and Pure Science have coöperated in the creation of a representative Joint Committee on Graduate Instruction, which, under the chairmanship of the Dean, will deal with many matters which have heretofore absorbed the attention of those Faculties as a whole, thereby releasing their members from direct participation in some of that necessary academic business which so often absorbs time and effort that might better be given to research and publication. The professional work in Architecture, in Business, and in Journalism has not stood still, and the many-sided undertakings of University Extension and the Summer Session have been both widened and deepened. The spirit of helpful coöperation and of loyal devotion to a common cause which permeates and animates the whole University is ground for deep gratification. Younger scholars are coming forward in considerable number some day to take the place of those who are growing old in the service. The leaders of this group are already men of influence and great usefulness not only in their several departments and faculties, but in the University as a whole.

The contributions to knowledge published during the year by the University's scholars make a list far too long to reproduce here. They touch every conceivable field of knowledge, and not a few of them record research of much more than usual novelty and distinction. The University Press is wholly unable, for financial reasons, to place before the world of scholars the published results of each year's completed work, and for that reason very many of these are not recorded as the product of the University at all.

On every side there are signs of progress and of earnest desire to improve the University's teaching, to strengthen its equipment and to open out new and still more inviting opportunities for advanced scholars and those who are to be schooled in the art of independent inquiry. So long as this is true the University is not drugged with self-content, but is alive, active and vigorous.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

For the thirtieth time this Annual Report is submitted over one and the same signature. These thirty years have been amazingly abundant in significant happenings and in glad and happy service. . . .

If the University is to continue to thrive and grow constantly stronger, to make more attractive and more inviting the academic career, and to serve the nation and the world through its scholarship and service on the highest plane, it will not be enough simply to do industriously and well the work of each succeeding day. Those who have entrusted to them for a longer or a shorter time the University's welfare must ever bear in mind the fine sentence of Emerson: "Be an opener of doors to those who come after you." †

* Report for 1922-23, pp. 1-3

† Report for 1930-31, p. 51.

ADMINISTRATION AND LEGISLATION

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

The separation of legislation from administration, which is as necessary in a university as in a state, threw, under conditions as they formerly existed, an impossible burden upon the President. No President could possibly know, immediately and at first hand, all the facts in regard to the scores of matters that were brought daily for executive decision. A decentralization of administrative authority had become imperative unless the whole work of the University was to be delayed and harassed. This decentralization was effected, in accordance with the recommendation contained in the Annual Report for 1903, by changing the status of the Dean, by increasing his power and responsibility, and by striking out the statutory provision that no Dean should receive compensation as such. As a consequence, the Deans have become officers of the University as a whole and are much more than merely the administrators of the business of a given Faculty. It is still the duty of a Dean, of course, to carry out and enforce the legislation of the appropriate Faculty or Faculties, but it is also his duty to represent the general interests of the University in and for that portion of it to which he is assigned by the Trustees. The Dean's duties, therefore, are about what the duties of a college president formerly were. Indeed, it may be truthfully said that the present duties of the Dean of Columbia College are almost exactly those which devolved upon the President as recently as in the administration of Dr. Barnard. The duties of the President as they have come to exist are new duties created by new conditions, and they bear very little resemblance to the duties of the President of twenty-five years ago.*

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 42-43.

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

The great size of the University and the very rapid increase during recent years in the extent and variety of its activities, have directed constant attention to the importance of an effective, economical and smooth-working system of University administration. There is some measure of truth in the cynical suggestion that administration may best be defined as the doing extremely well of something that had better not be done at all. The tendency not only in universities but in all forms of public business to multiply and to complicate the details of routine administration is as strong as it is mischievous. The whole purpose of university administration is to make it possible for the University's scholars to do their work of teaching and investigation with the least interruption, annoyance or division of interest, and to record and to classify in the simplest way possible the personal performances of those who come to the University as students.

Certain it is that one of the greatest obstacles to the quick and satisfactory transaction of any university's business is what our own Professor of Engineering Chemistry has wittily described as "fussy administration." Fussy administration manifests itself chiefly through the committee system which is a plural executive with necessarily divided responsibility. Many minds chosen for their representative character and capacity are needed to formulate and to settle questions of policy, but when policies are once formulated and settled, they are far better executed by a single individual than by a number of men acting in consultation. Professor Whitaker has accurately described the difference between good administration and bad in the following sentences:

It is when this big, unwieldy committee engages in the consideration of nursery problems or attempts to function as an administrative body, that it becomes ridiculous. It has repeatedly been demonstrated that the administrative efficiency of a committee varies inversely as the square of the number of men on the committee. It is well known that business administration is much more efficient and prompt than public, society or academic administration, and the reason is to be

found, to a large extent, in the complete freedom of business administration from a triangular or pentagonal committee attempting to make a job for itself out of the duties of a reliable man.*

. . . One of the good results which follow upon separating administration from a plural executive is that Faculties, boards and committees are left free to devote their time and thought to the consideration and formulation of educational policies. This is their true business and their proper function. The individual administrative officer may then in turn be held to strict accountability for the work which is devolved upon him. It cannot be said that the separation between legislation and administration is as yet complete in all parts of the University, but an advance in this direction is constantly making, and each new step is justified by the results. The several Deans and Directors, the Provost, the Secretary, the Comptroller, the Registrar, the Bursar and the Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds have each definite administrative functions to perform for which they and they alone are responsible. It is because of the devotion, the ability and the administrative competence of the incumbents of these offices that the work of the University is carried on with such smoothness and satisfaction. Such contribution as Columbia University has been able to make to the subject of university administration may be summarized by the statement that it has consciously and with success separated the task of pure administration from the task of academic legislation. What shall be the conditions of admission to the work of a given School in the University is a matter to be determined by the Faculty or administrative board of that School; whether a given student shall be adjudged to have complied with the conditions of admission to that School and shall be admitted is a matter for the Director of Admissions to determine.

As a consequence of this system, there is little or no friction between the various boards of the University, or between the several administrative officers. All work devotedly and harmo-

* From the *Journal of Industrial and Engineering Chemistry*, September, 1912, pp. 634-36.

niously for a common end, each in his own special sphere of activity and usefulness. Meanwhile the educational policies, including the standards of admission and graduation, programs of study and all matters pertaining to these or arising out of them, are settled as they should be settled, by the teaching staff organized into Faculties, administrative boards and standing committees.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

Some years ago the London *Spectator* invited Lord Salisbury, then Prime Minister, to read to his colleagues in the Cabinet the eighteenth chapter of Exodus beginning at the thirteenth verse. The writer pointed out that in that chapter the true principle of civil administration is laid down with a clearness and precision which no subsequent writers on public affairs have ever bettered. The passage in question relates the visit of Jethro to his son-in-law, Moses, in the course of which Jethro observed that the whole of Moses' energy was occupied with the details of administration. He therefore felt compelled to protest and to ask Moses why he was so continually immersed in the details of his work. The answer of Moses was not satisfying, and Jethro at once pointed out where the weak spot lay. He said to Moses: "The thing that thou doest is not good. Thou wilt surely wear away, both thou, and this people that is with thee: for the thing is too heavy for thee; thou art not able to perform it thyself alone." This wise man went on to urge that Moses should content himself with laying down general principles of action, and that details should be left to subordinates. His exact words have not lost their consequence: "Thou [Moses] shalt teach them the statutes and the laws, and shalt show them the way wherein they must walk, and the work that they must do. . . . And it shall be that every great matter they shall bring unto thee, but every small matter they shall judge themselves; so shall it be easier for thyself, and they shall bear the burden with thee."

More tractable than most sons-in-law, Moses accepted the

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 1-4.

good advice of Jethro, and the record tells that in future Moses refrained from interference with matters of detail and occupied himself solely with those of importance.

The distinction between government and administration and the principles of good administration could not be better stated than by Jethro. Government is the establishment of principles, laws, policies, and administration is the carrying out and executing of those principles, laws, policies. In Columbia University this distinction has been accepted and acted upon with increasing completeness for thirty years. The records of the University make plain that before 1887 or thereabouts, the Trustees concerned themselves not only with the government of the University, but directly with its administration. Since July 1, 1887, however, and more completely since 1892, the Statutes of the University have put all initiative and virtually complete responsibility for the educational policies and work of the University, in the hands of the University Council and the several Faculties. These bodies are, by their nature, legislative, and the execution of the policies authorized by them is confided to the President, to Deans, to Directors, to Secretaries and to other appropriate officers of administration. Democracy in government is understandable and the professed aim and faith of most modern men. Democracy in administration, however, is a meaningless phrase. There can be no democracy in collecting the fares on a street car, or in painting a house, or in writing a letter. Vague and inconsequent writers are, nevertheless, in the habit of using the nonsensical phrase "democracy in administration," apparently without appreciation of the fact that the words are literally nonsense. To distinguish between government and administration and then to establish sound principles of administration, are no less important now than in the days of Jethro and Moses.

The organization of Columbia University is prescribed by the charter, but a reading of the charter provisions would give no idea of the practical working of that organization in the present year of grace. The charter gives the Trustees full legal power

and authority to direct and prescribe the course of study and the discipline to be observed. The Trustees have, however, by Statutes of their own adoption, long since put the first of these powers in the hands of the University Council and of the Faculties, and second in the hands of the President, the Deans, and the Directors. There is record of but a single instance since 1892 where any exercise of the powers so committed to the Council or the Faculties has been amended or rejected by the Trustees, to whom all such action, if important, must go for formal approval; and no case of discipline has been appealed to the Trustees since many years before that date.

The present functions of the Trustees, as distinct from their legal powers and authority, are to care for the property and funds of the corporation, to erect and to maintain the buildings necessary for the work of the University, and to appropriate annually the sums which in their judgment are necessary and expedient for the carrying on of the University's work. In addition, the Trustees select and appoint a President and, following the quaint language of the charter, "such professor or professors, tutor or tutors to assist the president in the government and education of the students belonging to the said college, and such other officer or officers, as to the said trustees shall seem meet, all of whom shall hold their offices during the pleasure of the trustees."

In practice it is only the first of these functions, that of caring for the property and funds of the corporation, which the Trustees perform without consultation with other members of the University. In the planning and erection of new buildings those individuals or groups of individuals who are to occupy and use any given building are always consulted as to its plan and arrangement. For at least twenty-five years no appointment to the teaching staff has been made, with two exceptions, save upon the recommendation and advice of those members or representatives of the teaching staff most immediately interested. The two exceptions were cases in which donors of new endowments asked

for specified appointments to the positions which the endowments made possible, submitting in each case ample testimony to the competence of the persons named. To all teaching positions below the grade of assistant professor, hundreds in number each year, the power of appointment is vested in the several Faculties. These appointments are confirmed as a matter of form by the Trustees, but there is no record of any such appointment having failed of confirmation. It seems plain, therefore, that for a quarter of a century the practice at Columbia University has been in accord with those ideals of university government that put the largest possible measure of responsibility and power in the hands of the university teachers, and that it is probably far in advance of the policy pursued at most other universities of rank either in Europe or in the United States.

As the work of University administration becomes precise and better organized, it is better done. Funds are by no means adequate to permit the institution of a thoroughly competent and perfectly organized administrative staff in Columbia University, but so far as means will permit the sound principles of administration that have been described are uniformly followed. After a policy has once been formulated and adopted by the appropriate legislative University authority, it is entrusted for execution to an individual. That individual is chosen for his known competence in the transaction of business and in dealing with men. Upon him rests the responsibility, easily fixed when need be, for the prompt and effective carrying out of the measures put in his hands.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1925

An essential element in the building of this University has been to infuse into so many separate and often disparate elements a sense of unity and devotion to a common ideal and a single dominating purpose. The problem is the familiar one of liberty and law, of the federal principle as contrasted with that of empire.

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 41-45.

The unity of the whole is strengthened and not weakened when the several units which compose it are left as free as possible to direct their own particular activities and to frame their own policies in the general interest and in subordination to a common ideal. In its administrative organization the University manifests absolute concentration of responsibility in the office of the President, with complete devolution of authority to the score or more of Deans, Directors and other administrative officers, whether having to do with education, with construction and physical maintenance, or with finance. The unity of the University is manifested to itself and to the public through the office and personality of the President, through the constitution and authority of the University Council, through the organization and work of the Summer Session and University Extension, and through those notable ceremonies in which the entire University participates, such as the annual Commencement which marks the close of the academic year in June and the formal exercises which mark the opening of the succeeding year in the following September. Through these several channels and modes of expression the University manifests, year in and year out, that unity in diversity which is the source of its peculiar strength and that single-minded spirit of devotion to the highest ideals which animates its every part and its every undertaking. . . .

It must never be forgotten that the university is far more than a mere special and advanced type of school. It is that only incidentally. The university is a fundamental human institution which rests upon a like basis to those which support the state and the church. Man's effort to live happily and helpfully with his fellows in organized society gives rise to the state; man's spiritual aspiration and wish to worship are the origin of the church; man's persistent desire to know the truth which shall make him free has brought the university into being. These three institutions—the state, the church, the university—are alike fundamental, and each in its way embodies and reveals a universal characteristic of human nature. That university will best play its

part which is fully conscious of its origin, of the foundation upon which it rests, and of the ideal which it endeavors to achieve.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

The form of organization which has developed at Columbia through the years is essentially that federal form which is more and more commending itself to public opinion as the most effective, most secure, and most elastic organization of the nations of the world. The federal form of government may and does go to the full extreme of centralized and compact organization, as exemplified by the United States of America and by the new German State. It may take the much looser and less markedly integrated form which is typified by the British Commonwealth of Nations. It may, again, take the form which is steadily growing in favor to bring into existence an economic union of the states of central and western Europe and a similar economic union of the Balkan states. It may yet prove to be the solution of the problems of the Government of Ireland and the Government of India.

The essential elements of this federal form of organization, whether political or educational, are that there be whole-hearted understanding and sympathetic coöperation on the part of the several units which are working together. There must, in addition, be a sufficient form of unity and a central organ to insure that this spirit of coöperation shall have full opportunity for expression and for growth. On the other hand, the central organs of administration must not be so penetrating, so meticulous, and so local in their authority as to limit, much less to destroy, the spirit and principle of local self-government, the expression of local pride, and the appeal to local loyalty and enthusiasm.

The federal form of organization has grown up at Columbia with perfect naturalness. It began when in 1858 a School of Law was organized as a thing apart from Columbia College and held

* Report for 1924-25, pp. 6-8.

responsible for its own financial administration. A second step was taken in 1864, when the School of Mines was organized and entrusted to a separate Faculty under what were at first very definite financial limitations. Then, beginning in 1880, came the organization of that graduate work which justifies the name University, with the establishment of the Faculties of Political Science, Philosophy, and Pure Science, each of which was self-governing in its field. All these were maintained by the University corporation itself. In 1898 Teachers College entered the educational system of Columbia as a separate and financially independent unit, as did Barnard College in 1900. The College of Pharmacy followed on similar terms in 1904, and St. Stephen's College, which likewise maintained its corporate independence and financial responsibility, was added in 1928. The characteristic of the federal organization of the University's educational system is its simplicity, its elasticity, its freedom from bureaucratic control, and its provision for the largest possible measure of local self-government throughout the whole series of faculties and corporations which are now included popularly and actually, although not legally, under the name Columbia University.

The symbol of the unity of the University is the office of President. Its most impressive public manifestation is the annual Commencement, culminating in the stately ceremony where all University degrees are publicly conferred and all University honors publicly awarded. The organ which has been brought into existence to give expression to the unity of the University is the University Council, which exercises the large and manyfold powers conferred upon it by the Statutes of the University, and upon which sit representatives of every Faculty and of every separate corporate interest.

Had a uniform, bureaucratic, and legalistic system of University organization been substituted for this natural growth of the federal principle, the result would long ago have been disastrous. The fact is that Columbia University is a typical community and a typical social and political organization. It may well be looked

upon as a useful and illuminating experiment in the adaptation of the federal organization of government to the largest affairs and interests of men.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

As man's experience broadens and deepens, it is becoming increasingly clear that the surest way to avoid dictatorships on the one hand, or chaos on the other, is through the extension of the federal principle of organization. This means that each unit of the federation shall be at liberty to manage its own affairs and to bear its own immediate responsibilities, and that it shall be joined with its associates in counsel and concern for that great body of interests and ideals which is common to them all. The government of the United States, and now that of the British Commonwealth of Nations, are the two outstanding examples of the use of the federal principle in political organization. In business organization, this principle has made no small headway during recent years, particularly in the United States. It has been characteristic of Columbia University from the beginning of the organization of its present educational system. When in 1892 the Trustees of Teachers College formally proposed to transfer that corporation and its work to the control of the Trustees of Columbia University, their offer was declined at the instance of those members of the University who were most concerned for the future of Teachers College. They felt certain that with the opinion which then prevailed among scholars of the older school as to the scientific and philosophic study of education and the importance of such study, the new institution would lose and not gain by being brought under direct and complete University control. That they were right, the intervening years have clearly demonstrated. By coming into the University's educational system in 1898 as an independent, self-governing unit in a federation of independent, self-governing units, Teachers College gained everything and lost nothing. Similarly, Barnard College, which

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 19-21.

would not have existed had women been admitted as undergraduate students of Columbia College when that proposal was first made, was organized as a separate and independent corporation, and entered the University's educational system as a federal unit in 1900. The federal principle has since been extended to include the College of Pharmacy, the New York Post-Graduate Medical School and Hospital, and Bard College. In no case is there any financial responsibility resting upon the Trustees of the University for the conduct of the work of any of these affiliated corporations. If the Trustees of the University make a grant-in-aid to another of the units in the University's educational system, it is because they think it wise to do so on grounds of general educational system, and not because there is any obligation resting upon them.

Through the operation of this federal principle, officers of the affiliated institutions become, by the terms of the several agreements, University officers. Their appointments are confirmed by the Trustees of the University and their salaries are paid by the University with funds transferred to the University for that purpose by the Trustees of the several independent corporations. In this way, and because of the authority and jurisdiction of the President and those of the University Council, the educational unity and coöperation of the educational system are made complete, while the financial independence of the several corporations is in no wise limited or interfered with.

It is plain that a principle of this kind is susceptible of very wide application, and it may well be that in this country we are seeing only the beginning of its usefulness. Bard College, admitted to the University's educational system in 1928, well illustrates what may be going to happen in many other cases in different parts of the United States. The small, separate and well-placed college is an institution of vital importance in our American life. We cannot afford to let fail any one of these colleges which has sound policies, high ideals and which has made a place for itself in the nation's intellectual life. At the same time, one

must face the problems which confront them. One of the most serious of these is how to provide intellectual companionship for their teachers and scholars. These men and women are most desirous of having the stimulus and encouragement which come through association with teachers and scholars like-minded with themselves, and through opportunity to use the resources and equipment, the libraries and laboratories, of a well-established neighboring university. The best and easiest way to accomplish these ends, while protecting the small college and preserving its independence, is to welcome its incorporation in a university's educational system as a distinct and independent federal unit. Its trustees can then appeal with renewed confidence for financial support. They can secure the service upon their faculty of the highest type of teaching scholar, and they can gain for their undergraduates and alumni those associations, both personal and academic, which mean so much throughout life. The experience of Columbia University is perhaps opening a new door for the still more effective federal organization of higher education in different parts of the country.*

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE PRESIDENT

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

The presidency of Columbia is an office with a long and honorable history. The original charter of 1754 empowers the Governors of King's College, or the major part of them, "to elect, nominate and appoint any person to be president of the said College in a vacancy of the said presidentship for and during his good behaviour provided always such president elect or to be elected by them be a member of and in communion with the Church of England as by law established."

It was apparently the plan of those who drafted this Charter that the President should himself be the chief teacher in the College, and that all other teachers were to be regarded as his assistants, since this provision immediately follows:

* Report for 1934-35, pp. 19-21.

And also to elect one or more Fellow or Fellows Professor or Professors Tutor or Tutors to assist the President of the said College in the education and government of the students belonging to the said College which Fellow or Fellows Professor or Professors Tutor or Tutors and every one of them shall hold and enjoy their said office or place either at the will and pleasure of the Governors of the said corporation or during his or their good behaviour according as shall be agreed upon between such Fellow or Fellows Professor or Professors Tutor or Tutors and the said Governors of the said College.

. . . The duties of the President of Columbia have strangely changed since the office was established. None of the duties that devolved immediately upon President Samuel Johnson are now performed by his successor. Very few of the duties and responsibilities that were directly borne by President Barnard, or even by President Low, are now borne by their successor. These duties are performed by the various Deans and Directors and by other chief administrative officers among whom they have been divided. The President of the University is now occupied almost entirely with problems newly arisen out of new developments and new conditions. He must live largely in the future, and must concern himself chiefly with those major policies and acts that affect the prosperity, the influence and the prestige of the institution as a whole. His duties may best be stated in terms of the English political system as those of prime minister holding the portfolios of foreign affairs and of the treasury. As to all matters of internal administration the President is the counselor and adviser of those to whom these duties are directly entrusted. In the strict sense of the word, the administrative head of Columbia University is neither a college president nor even a university president; he is President of Columbia University. His duties and occupations are unique because Columbia is unique.

It is sometimes urged that as universities grow and their interests become complex and varied there should be a division of executive responsibility between two or more academic officers. This is the road of friction, of irresponsibility and of ineffectiveness. The larger and more complex an institution becomes the

greater is the need for a single executive head. The sound policy is one not of division of responsibility but of devolution of authority. When competent and devoted administrative officers are to be found, it is correct policy to devolve upon each of them a certain definite authority and to relieve the president of it entirely, save as he is of course responsible in last resort for everything that takes place, whether good or ill, within the scope of his jurisdiction. The steadily increasing effectiveness of the administration of Columbia University is due to the ability, the devotion, and the unflagging zeal of those to whom the tasks of its daily life are specifically committed.*

POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE TRUSTEES

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

By the provisions of the Charter, all officers of administration and instruction are appointed to hold their offices during the pleasure of the Trustees. Useful reflection is invited by the question why it should usually be considered so normal and so natural for a teacher to exercise his pleasure to exchange one academic post for another, while so abnormal and so unnatural for the governors of an institution of learning to exercise their pleasure to substitute a more satisfactory individual teacher for a poorer or less satisfactory one. It would seem that the phrase "during the pleasure of the Trustees" opened the way to a termination of academic relationship without any necessary reflection whatever upon the character of the individual teacher. Indeed, this is precisely the judicial construction that has been given to these words. In the case of *People ex rel. Kelsey v. New York Medical School*, decided in 1898, the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court, in a unanimous opinion written by Mr. Justice Barrett, used this language in distinguishing between removal after charges and removal at the pleasure of the Trustees (Appellate Division Reports, New York, 29:247-8):

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 44-45, 51-52.

The decision of a Board upon charges, after a hearing, cannot in any proper sense be deemed a manifestation of its pleasure. The power in the one case is absolute, in the other judicial.

It seems quite reasonable, too, that these alternative powers should thus have been conferred. It seems equally reasonable that a majority vote should have been deemed sufficient for removal at pleasure, while a three-fourths vote should have been required for a removal upon charges. When a professor is removed at pleasure, no stigma attaches to the act of removal. His services are no longer required and he is told so. That is what in substance such a removal amounts to. When he is removed upon charges, however, he is sent out into the professional world with a stain upon his record. The distinction here is obvious and the intention to discriminate, just. If a professor misconducts himself, he may be disciplined. The College in that case deems it improper to give him an honorable discharge or to permit him to depart with the impunity attached to a mere causeless dismissal. If, however, its relations with him are severed merely because he is not liked or because someone else is preferred, dismissal at pleasure is provided for. In the latter case, it is reasonable that the majority in the usual way, should govern an act. If the former, it is just that the stigma should not be fastened upon the professor without a hearing and a substantial preponderance in the vote. . . .

Upon the other hand, the College should not be tied to a particular person who, however able and worthy, happens to be afflicted with temperamental qualities which render association with him disagreeable. There can be no good reason why such a person should be permanently inflicted upon his associates, so long as he does nothing which renders him amenable to charges. . . . The appointment of a professor is not an appointment to office in the corporation any more than is the appointment of an instructor. It is an appointment which implies contractual relations in some form of which the by-law is the foundation. The professor may leave at his pleasure; the Board may terminate his professorship at its pleasure. If the relator's view be correct, the "pleasure" is his and his alone. It would follow that he has an appointment which constitutes a unilateral contract of retention at his own pleasure for life or during good behavior; in other words, a contract which he alone can specifically enforce and which is entirely dependent upon his individual will. We think this theory is entirely unfounded.

The sound common sense of this judgment cannot be gainsaid. It would be little short of a calamity were it not possible for an academic teacher to change his place of occupation without

thereby reflecting upon the intelligence or the integrity of those with whom he had been associated, and similarly if it became impossible for the governing board of a school system or of a school or college to substitute one teacher for another without bringing charges against the person displaced. Any contrary theory assumes a preëstablished harmony of which not even Leibnitz dreamed and a preëstablished competence which would render it impossible for anyone to be appointed to a teaching position who was not *ipso facto* entitled to steady promotion and increase in compensation and to a lifelong tenure. If advancement and success in the teaching profession are to depend upon merit and not merely upon status, there must be clear thinking and definite action in respect to these matters. Security of tenure is desirable, but competence and loyalty are more desirable still, and a secure tenure purchased at the price of incompetence and disloyalty must sound a death-knell to every educational system or institution where it prevails. These are all matters of grave importance in the government of an educational system or an educational institution. They cannot be dismissed with phrases or formulas, but must be met and decided in accordance with sound principle and the public interest.*

FINANCIAL POLICY AND THE BUDGET

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

Before a college or university makes public appeal for aid, however, it is judicious, if not imperative, to make, and satisfactorily to answer, two searching inquiries. The first is, are all existing forms of expenditures justified or can savings be made by pruning the annual appropriations of whatever is wasteful, unnecessary or overlapping? The second inquiry is, can the work of the university be made to yield a larger income by readjustment and increase of tuition charges, by expansion of its activities in ways that are more than self-supporting, or by any other method? When these two inquiries have been satisfactorily an-

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 45-48.

swered, then a college or university is amply justified in making an urgent appeal to the public for additional endowment.

It is not to be taken for granted because a university, a hospital, or a church statedly makes certain expenditures with the best intent in the world, that therefore those expenditures are justified. A university may perhaps be as unbusinesslike in its administration as a government. The one way in which to lay bare every item of expenditure and to provide the information upon which alone judgment can be passed as to whether it is justified, is by the use of a carefully classified budget. In Columbia University a complete budget system was introduced nearly twenty years ago, and it has been developed to a point where an itemized statement of appropriations and an itemized statement of income are at hand for the most minute and searching examination. In the case of Columbia University it is not possible to conceal any class of expenditures, so minute is the classification and so complete the supervision by the Committees on Education, on Buildings and Grounds, and on Finance. The annual audit of the books and accounts of the University, made by certified public accountants who have no official relation to the corporation, again tests the validity and accuracy of all items of income and of expenditure. A university without a budget system is not in position to tell whether or not it is making wasteful expenditures or whether it is maintaining branches of work that duplicate or overlap like provisions in another part of the institution.

When it is determined that a university is not making any unwise or wasteful expenditures, then the question arises as to whether it is earning as much as it should. Higher education has always been provided at a fraction of its cost, but unfortunately as its cost has increased the charge made for it has too often stood still or been increased in much smaller proportion. It is certainly not a legitimate use of the income of funds given by the public for the endowment of higher education, to continue to provide for the sons and daughters of the well-to-do a very expensive opportunity for higher education at the same scale of fees that pre-

vailed a generation or more ago. Where tuition fees have not been sharply raised, a university is hardly justified in appealing to the public for support. It has not made full use of the opportunities within its own control. It is a fallacy to suppose that deserving students will be deprived of a college or university education if tuition fees are increased by any amount that is likely to be suggested. Experience proves just the contrary. What is important in such case is that ample provision be made to care for those students who, having proved their fitness, would be deprived of a college or university education unless financial aid were forthcoming. The glory of any American university, certainly the glory of the Columbia University of today, is the large number of students who by their own efforts are earning all or part of the money needed to keep them in university residence. The burden of any such student should not be increased by a pennyweight; rather it should be lightened by every possible device. This can be done and, by a well-formulated plan of scholarship aid, deserving students who are in narrow circumstances can be assisted without in any wise interfering with the policy of raising the tuition fees for the general body of students.

Moreover, if a university is placed at or near a great center of population, it is entirely possible for it to work out a plan of scholarly public service that will not only meet its cost but return a new revenue to the university treasury.

When a university has convinced itself and the public that it makes no wasteful expenditures and that it is earning as much as possible in tuition fees, then a well-supported and persuasive appeal for public assistance may rightly be made.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1923

After years of labor and after working out in fullest detail a budget system, the financial administration of the University has been put upon a sound basis. There are no longer distressing annual deficits in Income and Expense account, and the need for

* Report for 1918-19, pp. 2-4.

temporary borrowing in anticipation of income has disappeared. This does not mean that the University's needs, even the imperative needs of each year, are met, but only that the University has formed the habit of denying itself those satisfactions, however important, for which it cannot pay. There are two ways of conducting the financial administration of a university. The one way is to contract to spend whatever sums seem desirable, wholly regardless of the relation that exists between these sums and the stated income from which they are to be met, and then to throw the institution upon the mercy and pity of the public in the hope of obtaining relief. This may be called the sentimental method of university administration. It is hopelessly bad and misleading. It puts the institution in a wrong light before both itself and the public. The other way is rigidly to confine the annual expenditures to the amount of the certain or probable income that will be at hand to meet them. This may be called the business method of university administration, and experience proves that it is far more effective in attracting new sources of support than is the sentimental method with its annual deficit and its annual appeal for help.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

It is always easy to find ways and means with which to increase the annual appropriations and arguments with which to defend those increases convincingly, but it is very difficult to hit upon any method whatsoever to decrease them. The budget problem is not only one of finance, but one of human feeling and human relationship. In the financial administration of a university mere monetary considerations must always and everywhere take second place. A university, however large its endowment, is neither a bank, an investment company, nor a manufacturing corporation aiming to pay dividends and to show gains. It is primarily and always a company of human beings bent upon the pursuit of the highest ends by the finest and most disinterested

* Report for 1922-23, p. 20.

means. The needs and the aspirations of that company come first; everything else comes second.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

The purpose of this new and important departure [provision for protection of the University's rights and interests in regard to patents, royalties, etc.] is, by the coöperation of the University and its authority, to protect the discoverer or inventor of a patentable article or process, to ensure that the public be served under the best possible conditions and at a reasonable price, and to enable the University itself to share in the benefits of the patent, to the end that the funds at its disposal for the promotion of research may be increased.

It is too early in the history of this undertaking to predict its results or its importance, but it is generally accepted as a significant and helpful advance in University policy.†

LIBRARY GROWTH AND ADMINISTRATION

OCTOBER 5, 1903

The time has come when the Library, if it cannot go forward, must inevitably go backward. The demands upon it are too great to be successfully borne unless it can command more room and larger annual appropriations. . . . No other branch of the University's work outranks it in importance. . . .

It is my hope that it will be possible to bring all the collections of books throughout the University under the general oversight of the Librarian at an early day, and to administer them on one uniform plan. Economy and increased efficiency will be the certain result of this step. Deputy librarians would naturally be appointed to take immediate charge of the larger collections, such as that of the Law School and Teachers College, and libraries mainly departmental in character would of course be administered according to the special needs of the Department con-

* Report for 1923-24, p. 6.

† Report for 1923-24, p. 35.

cerned. But there would be but one system of purchase and cataloguing, and one scale of salaries, throughout the libraries of the University. The gain would be marked in many ways.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

The problems of a university library, and in particular the problems of the Columbia University Library, are peculiar and distinctive. They are, in part, the problems of a general public library, but they are also much more than that. The users of a university library are in large part scholars and serious students and only in small degree casual readers in search of diversion and entertainment. It is important that the administration of the Library should be in close sympathy with the work of the University teachers and investigators, and that it should not, through excess of bureaucratic zeal or technical requirements, put unnecessary obstacles in the way of making the collections of books and pamphlets as immediately and as practically useful as possible to those who are engaged in teaching and in carrying forward independent research. The University Library takes rank not so much as a department of instruction as a School or Faculty, and as a School having most intimate relations with the work of every other School or Faculty in the University. An interregnum in the Library administration, with such competent scholars as Professor Lockwood and the Provost of the University serving as directors of the Library, will not be without its advantages. It may be expected to bring both the spirit and the letter of Library administration into close touch with the needs and wishes of the members of the Faculties, and to establish a relationship so close and so valuable that it will not hereafter be weakened or broken.

The major or primary collections of books in a university library cover the whole field of knowledge and are the correlative of the usual public library. These collections are divided into the general library, the reference collection assembled in the general reading-room, and the special or technical libraries. In addition

* Report for 1902-3, pp. 41-42.

to these primary collections, there are the secondary or duplicate collections, consisting of books chosen for a definite educational purpose. These are either specific libraries of the type assembled in the College Study in Hamilton Hall, or seminar libraries placed at points throughout the University buildings that are convenient for those who chiefly use them.

The aim of the primary collection in the general library is completeness. While this can never be attained either theoretically or practically, yet the usefulness of the primary collection depends upon its being substantially complete and thoroughly representative of the main intellectual interests of mankind. All known devices of cataloguing and administration are used to make this primary collection available to the largest number of users. This collection, as such, has no educational function that differs from any so-called public library, yet it is an indispensable part of every university, for research can only be carried on in an institution of learning that is equipped with one of the really great libraries of the world.

The reference library, assembled in the general reading-room, is a characteristic of every great modern library and has come into existence in response to a definite practical need. While the reference library includes a representation of all subjects, yet it contains but one type of book, namely, the reference book, under which head are included dictionaries, encyclopedias, bibliographies, handbooks, and the chief literary masterpieces. The reference library is really a library within the library and is maintained as a distinct unit.

The special or technical libraries are in part the outgrowth of traditional subdivisions of knowledge and intellectual interest, and in part of practical needs. Certain well-defined technical subjects, the most ancient being law, medicine and theology, tend to become isolated and self-sufficient. It is usual to place the university collections of books on these subjects in the buildings in which instruction in the subjects themselves is given. The general reader has little need of the technical literature of

the separate professions, and on the other hand, the student in the professional school is able to carry on his own studies with but slight reference to general literature. In some cases there is an absolute need for separate provision for these special or technical libraries. In the case of physics, chemistry and zoölogy, for example, the books must be where the laboratories are, and the laboratories cannot be placed in a general library building. This illustrates one of the problems peculiar to university libraries. A public library does not conduct laboratory courses in natural science and is therefore at liberty to place its collections of books on physics, chemistry and zoölogy wherever it is most convenient to do so. In a university library, the separation between the general or primary collection and the special or technical collections leads to a further need which has not always been recognized as its importance deserves. It is imperative that in the case of the more popular and more general technical books duplicate sets be provided for the general library. Moreover, very many subdivisions of these special subjects overlap and require two, or even three, sets of certain books in order that the special or technical collections may be really useful. . . .

The secondary or duplicate collections of books are peculiar to a university library and are the outgrowth of strictly educational needs. The specialists in history, in economics, in philosophy, and in various branches of literature, cast longing eyes upon the collections in their respective fields and are always anxious to lay hands on these particular groups of books and to carry them off bodily from the general library to some island home of their own. The convenience of having well-defined collections of this kind in the field of the humanities as well as in the field of the sciences is obvious, but it means either a huge increase in the cost of library administration or the destruction of the general library. The wise course probably is to form secondary collections of this kind, made up of carefully selected and authoritative books, but all of them duplicates of the collections in the general library.

The purpose of all these collections and the aim of their sound administration is that the books may be used in the best possible way and with the least possible loss of time and effort. So far as teachers are concerned, there is no very difficult problem here, but the contrary is the case with the students. Probably a majority of all university students never find their bearings in the maze of a great library. Only those of exceptional intelligence and initiative attack and solve the peculiarly modern problem of the use of a huge collection of books. Something must be done to increase the skill of the student in the use of the collections that are provided for him. This is a matter in which the library itself can give much help and much direction, but the library will be helpless without the active coöperation of the college and university teachers. Instruction and guidance in the use of the library would be about as important a course of instruction as the American student could possibly have given to him. The law librarian has already had marked success and met with a cordial response in his endeavors to make the students of law more familiar with the law library and to show them how to use it effectively. Similar undertakings should be organized for students in other parts of the University. They should, without exception, be taught to lean upon the library, and to lean upon it intelligently and to some purpose.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1921

There will always remain, however, the almost insoluble problem presented by the increasing flood of printed books and periodicals. Should production go on at the present rate it seems quite clear that in a hundred years' time it will be quite impossible for Columbia University to provide either the money or the space to maintain a Library that shall contain everything for which demand is made. Something, perhaps much, could be accomplished if the chief universities and public libraries would join together in a plan for coöperation that would assign to but

* Report for 1915-16, pp. 24-28.

one library of the coöperating group the task of buying rare, costly or unusual books in a given field. But even were this done, a problem of no small magnitude would remain to be solved. Those who organize and conduct the work of research wish to have everything that is printed in a given field of inquiry pass under their own eyes or those of their students. The cost of this, already great, will one day become colossal, particularly when it is remembered that much of this matter is so inconsequent that it is never referred to a second time. Modern man has an almost superstitious reverence for the printed page, which causes him to give an amount of attention to the printed word that it would not occur to him to give were the same word only spoken. The piling up of great collections of useless books goes on, and yet no one is apparently wise enough to say which of these may safely be discarded as likely never to be called for again. The question of library growth and library administration has its practical aspects, which must sooner or later be faced, no matter how great their difficulties.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1926

Library administration is one of the fields of intellectual endeavor in which the United States occupies a leading, perhaps a commanding, position. The relation of the library to the cultivation and formation of public opinion and its influential place as an agency for adult education unite in giving to library administration a new and peculiar importance. The life of the world has become so varied and so complex, and the means of almost instant communication have been so multiplied and so cheapened, that the most intelligent of men may readily become submerged under the vast mass of views which are pressed upon him, and unless he has the guidance of a well-established set of standards and judgments of worth he may readily be overwhelmed and mystified rather than instructed. The aim of the trained library administrator is not merely to collect books, but

* Report for 1920-21, pp. 41-42.

to make books useful. It is so to arrange, to catalogue, and to describe them as to make them readily accessible. In other words, books must be made to move in order to do their real work. Judicious reading lists and reference lists must be prepared and circulated, and as new topics of interest attract public attention the library must be ready to point to the sources from which accurate information concerning them may be had. Then behind day-by-day phenomena stand the eternally true, the eternally beautiful, and the eternally good. These are the classics of literature, of history, of science, and of art. To them the library must always point, and smooth the pathway that leads to their familiar understanding.*

ACADEMIC FREEDOM AND PUBLIC CRITICISM†

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

When colleges were small and universities non-existent, it was possible — but very unusual — to have a faculty composed throughout of men of exceptional ability and distinction. The rapid growth and multiplication of colleges and universities, however, has necessarily drawn into their service men of every type and kind, and of these mediocrity has claimed its full share. One main difficulty with which the higher institutions of learning throughout the world have to struggle today is militant mediocrity. Distinction is to be sought for at whatever cost and strong, guiding personalities cannot be too numerous. But at Berlin, at Paris and at Oxford, no less than at Columbia, the searching question is being asked, where are to be found fit successors to the scholars of the generation that is now passing off the stage? Many are sought, but few are found.

There is room in a great university for scholars of every conceivable type. The recluse and the dreamer has his place, as well as the practical man who unites a love of scholarship with skill in affairs, and who brings the two into constant relation to each

* Report for 1925-26, pp. 39-40.

† See also "Aspects of Academic Freedom," pp. 27-40.

other. A poem, a musical composition, or a new synthesis in the higher reaches of pure mathematics, brings luster to a university, as does a new invention in the field of engineering, a new discovery in the laboratory, or a new application of old principles to present economic and political needs. Freedom of the spirit is the essence of a university's life. Whatever else is done or left undone, that freedom must be made secure.

But freedom imposes responsibility, and there are distinct limitations, which ought to be self-imposed, upon that academic freedom which was won at so great a cost, and which has produced such noble results. These are the limitations imposed by common morality, common sense, common loyalty, and a decent respect for the opinions of mankind. A teacher or investigator who offends against common morality has destroyed his academic usefulness, whatever may be his intellectual attainments. A teacher who offends against the plain dictates of common sense is in like situation. A teacher who cannot give to the institution which maintains him common loyalty and that kind of service which loyalty implies, ought not to be retained through fear of clamor or of criticism. Then, too, a university teacher owes a decent respect to the opinions of mankind. Men who feel that their personal convictions require them to treat the mature opinion of the civilized world without respect or with contempt, may well be given an opportunity to do so from private station and without the added influence and prestige of a university's name.

To state these fundamental principles is, however, more easy than to apply them; for the answers that are made when these principles are urged are so specious and the appeals to prejudice that follow are all so plausible, that their application requires courage no less than wisdom. No university can maintain its position if its official action appears to be guided by prejudice and narrowness of vision. Nevertheless, the historical development of the human race can hardly be wholly without significance, and there must be some reasonable presumption that what has

been and is need not always take a subordinate and inferior place to that which is proposed for the immediate future, but is yet untested and untried. It ought not to escape notice, however, that most of the increasingly numerous abuses of academic freedom are due simply to bad manners and to lack of ordinary tact and judgment.

It is the responsibility of the Trustees to give to academic freedom that constant and complete protection which it must have if the true university spirit is to be fostered and preserved, and at the same time to maintain the integrity of the charge committed to their care. This must be done without either fear or favor, whatever the consequences may be.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

A not inconsiderable part of the occupations of the President is to reply to letters addressed to him in criticism of some reported utterance by a member of the teaching staff, and in making such reply to point out what is the precise status and responsibility of an academic teacher, and what is the University's share of responsibility for his utterances. The number of such criticisms made on the part of the public has notably increased in recent years, and during the past year, probably on account of the European War, these criticisms have been even more numerous than heretofore. In most cases they are based on incorrect or garbled reports of what the person in question really said. In other cases they reflect merely narrowness of view and stupidity, or a desire to use the University as an agent for some particular propaganda which the critics hold dear. One thing these criticisms have in common; they almost invariably conclude by demanding the instant removal of the offending professor from the rolls of the University.

During the past year one amiable correspondent has attacked a University officer under the caption of a "Snake at large." The fact that the gentleman in question was not a snake but a pro-

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 22-24.

fessor and that he was not at large but in retirement, had no weight in the eyes of the writer of the letter. It appears that in this case the offense was the expression in public of a favorable opinion as to the nutritive qualities of beer. The effect of this reported utterance on the mind of the objector was to deprive him of any modicum of reason that he may have hitherto possessed. He was and still is very much offended that the officer in question was not subjected to some public humiliation and rebuke.

In another case a clergyman wrote to object to the reported utterances in the classroom — incorrectly reported, it turned out — of a professor who was described as endeavoring to destroy whatever of faith in Christianity there was in the members of one of his classes. This particular complainant did not ask for the dismissal of the professor in question, but his letter left no doubt that such action would be entirely acceptable to him.

A third and more exigent correspondent wished a professor dismissed — and dismissed by cable, inasmuch as he happened to be in Europe at the time of his offense — for having written a letter to the public press in which he expressed a personal view as to the merits of the European War that was not in accordance with prevailing American opinion. This correspondent based his demand for the professor's discharge upon the fact that he was traitorous and densely ignorant. Of course these two defects would doubtless have weight with the offender's colleagues and with the Trustees if the matter ever came before them in formal fashion.

Still another complainant was an official representative of a belligerent power, who wrote to denounce a University professor as a slanderer because of some difference of opinion as to the qualifications and character of an individual whose name was given. In this case the complainant did not ask for the dismissal of the offending professor but only that he should "be kindly called to account."

All this would be amusing were it not sad. It illustrates once more how much the public at large has still to learn as to the

significance and purpose of universities. The notion which is sedulously cultivated in some quarters that there are powerful interests, financial, economic and social which wish to curb the proper freedom of speech of university professors in America, probably has little or no justification anywhere. So far as Columbia University is concerned it has no justification whatever. That there are large elements in the population which do desire to curb the proper freedom of speech of university professors, is however indisputable. Evidence for this is to be found not only in such correspondence as has just been referred to, but in letters addressed to the public press, and even in editorial utterances on the part of supposedly reputable newspapers. The fact is that people generally have a great deal to learn as to the significance and functions of a university. The last thing that many persons want is freedom either of speech or of anything else unless its exercise happens to accord with their own somewhat violent and passionate predilections. It must be said, on the other hand, that professors of established reputation, sound judgment and good sense rarely if ever find themselves under serious criticism from any source. Such men and women may hold what opinions they please, since they are in the habit of expressing them with discretion, moderation, good taste and good sense. It is the violation of one or another of these canons which produces the occasional disturbance that is so widely advertised as an assertion of or attack upon academic freedom. Genuine cases of the invasion of academic freedom are so rare as to be almost nonexistent. It may be doubted whether more than two such cases have occurred in the United States in the past forty years. It is a misnomer to apply the high and splendid term "academic freedom" to exhibitions of bad taste and bad manners. A university owes it to itself to defend members of its teaching staff from unjust and improper attacks made upon them, when in sincerely seeking truth they arrive at results which are either novel in themselves or in opposition to some prevailing opinion. Here again the question is much more largely one of manner than of matter. The serious, schol-

arly and responsible investigator is not a demagogue, and demagogues should not be permitted to take his name in vain.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

Just as seven cities contended for the birthplace of Homer, so not fewer than seven American academic wits are contending for the honor of having originated the pungent saying: "Academic freedom means freedom to say what you think without thinking what you say." There is no real reason to fear that academic freedom, whether so defined or otherwise, is or ever has been in the slightest danger in the United States. Evidence to the contrary is quite too manyfold and too abundant. What is constantly in danger, however, is a just sense of academic obligation. When a teacher accepts an invitation to become a member of an academic society, he thereupon loses some of the freedom that he formerly possessed. He remains, as before, subject to the restrictions and the punishments of the law; but in addition he has voluntarily accepted the restrictions put upon him by the traditions, the organization, and the purposes of the institution with which he has become associated. Try as he may, he can no longer write or speak in his own name alone. Were he to succeed in so doing, what he might write or say would have, in nine cases out of ten, no significance and no hearing. What he writes or says gains significance and a hearing because of the prestige of the academic society to which he belongs. To that prestige, with all that that word means, the academic teacher owes a distinct, a constant, and a compelling obligation. To maintain one's connection with an academic society while at war with its purposes or disloyal to its traditions and organization is neither wise nor just. No one is compelled to remain in an academic association which he dislikes or which makes him uncomfortable. What the ancient Stoic said of life itself is true of a university: "The door is always open to anyone who has an excuse for leaving."

On the other hand, academic obligation is reciprocal. The aca-

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 19-22.

ademic society of which the individual teacher is a member owes to him encouragement, compensation as generous as its resources will afford, and protection from unfair attack and criticism, as well as from all avoidable hamperings and embarrassments in the prosecution of his intellectual work. Each individual member of an academic society is in some degree a keeper of that society's conscience and reputation. As such the society as a whole must give him support, assistance, and opportunity.

The same type of mind which insists that it knows no country but humanity, and that one should aim to be a citizen of no state but only of the world, indulges itself in the fiction that one may be disloyal to the academic society which he has voluntarily joined, in order to show devotion to something that he conceives to be higher and of greater value. Both contentions affront common sense and are the result of that muddled thinking which to-day is bold enough to misuse the noble name of philosophy. One effect of much recent teaching of what once was ethics is to weaken all sense of obligation of every kind except to one's own appetites and desire for instant advantage. That economic determinism which is confuted every time a human heart beats in sympathy and which all history throws to the winds, has in recent years obtained much influence among those who, for lack of a more accurate term, call themselves intellectuals. These are for the most part men who know so many things which are not so that they make ignorance appear to be not only interesting but positively important. They abound just now in the lower and more salable forms of literary production, and they are not without representation in academic societies.

The time has not yet come, however, when rational persons can contemplate with satisfaction the rule of the literary and academic Bolsheviks or permit them to seize responsibility for the intellectual life of the nation.

Neglect of one's academic obligation, or carelessness regarding it, gives rise to difficult problems. Men of mature years who have achieved reputation enough to be invited to occupy a post

of responsibility in a university ought not to have to be reminded that there is such a thing as academic obligation and that they fall short in it. It is humiliating and painful to find, with increasing frequency and in different parts of the country, men in distinguished academic posts, who choose to act in utter disregard of the plainest dictates of ethics and good conduct. It is fortunate indeed that, however conspicuous are instances of this disregard, they are in reality negligible in number when compared with the vast body of loyal, devoted, and scholarly American academic teachers. It is noticeable, too, that instances of this lack of a sense of obligation rarely arise, if ever, in the case of those men whose intellectual occupations bring them in contact with real things. It is only when a man is concerned chiefly with opinions and views, and those opinions and views of his own making, that he finds and yields to the temptation to make his academic association the football of his own ambitions or emotions.

It is important, too, that academic teachers shall not be so absorbed in their own individual work as not to give thought and care to the larger problems and interests of the academic society to which they belong. No part of a university system is without experience that is of value in helping to meet satisfactorily the questions that arise in other parts. The professor of law who is interested in the work of the law school alone, or the professor of engineering, of medicine, or of classical philology, who cannot find time or inducement to concern himself with questions affecting the entire university, or those parts of it that are foreign to his immediate field of interest, is doing only half his academic duty. No formula can be suggested for improving these conditions. They will be removed only by patiently pointing out, year after year, what the words obligation, loyalty, and duty mean, and by refusing to let them all be transmuted either into labels for ancient superstitions or names for various forms of personal advantage. In order to keep confidence in the ultimate achievement of a university's aim, and in order to avoid discour-

agement at the slow progress that is making, one may take comfort in the sagacious saying of Schiller: "Let no man measure by a scale of perfection the meagre product of reality." *

ALUMNI RELATIONS

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

The method of making the nominations [for the six places on the Board of Trustees to be filled, in accordance with the Board's resolution, by representatives of the alumni] is carefully prescribed in the resolutions adopted. It is hoped and believed that this step, which has been taken with the enthusiastic support and approval of alumni everywhere, will bind the graduates of the University still more closely to it and lead them to follow its fortunes with increasing interest and satisfaction.

The method prescribed for securing nominations from the alumni is one which tends to build up and to strengthen the alumni associations and so to develop in various centers and sections of the country that body of local interest in Alma Mater which is useful and helpful in so many ways.†

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

Constant discussion goes forward all over the land as to the relation which exists, and should exist, between an institution of higher education and those who have been graduated from it. It is worth noting that this question is in large degree one of purely American origin and American interest. In Great Britain and on the Continent of Europe former students have deep affection and respect for the university of their undergraduate days, but they have no such forms of organization and no such continuing and solicited enthusiasms, often very juvenile in character, as prevail among college and university graduates in the United States. There must be a reason for this difference, and the reason is probably to be found, partly in the conditions of undergradu-

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 48-51.

† Report for 1908-9, p. 16.

ate residence and life in America and partly in the stupendous development of sports and intercollegiate athletic contests which has marked the past half century. Diligent inquiry among men of an older period and some study of their memoirs and writings would indicate that until about fifty or sixty years ago conditions in the United States, so far as concerned alumni and their colleges, were about the same as those to be observed in Great Britain and on the Continent of Europe. This would seem to suggest that the development of intercollegiate athletic contests, zeal for success in them, and pride in their victories, are, in large measure at least, the stimulating cause of the alumni movement in the United States. However that may be, the alumni movement exists and is very powerful. It is important that it be placed upon a sound basis of principle and that it be guided into right and helpful channels of expression.

It is fixed doctrine at Columbia University that the alumnus is permanently a member of the University. He has come to it of his own accord, has placed his name upon its books, has qualified for one of its degrees, and has taken that degree. By these several acts he has become a member of the University family, entitled to recognition as such and bearing responsibility as such. He is always and everywhere, whether willingly or not, whether consciously or not, a representative of his University's training and ideals. Time and again the University will be judged, and either benefited or harmed by the conduct or achievements of an alumnus. In return for this representation of his University in his place of residence or in his professional calling or occupation, he is not only at liberty, but wholly welcome, to give to his University candid criticism, helpful advice and generous counsel. It is customary for the American colleges and universities to harass their alumni with constant and vociferous appeals for money gifts. Within limits it is wholly proper that a university should look to its alumni for the new financial support which it needs to go forward with its work, but the alumni should be made to understand and feel that they are not looked upon either wholly

or even primarily as a possible source of financial support and helpfulness.

Alumni representation on the Trustees of Columbia University, instituted in 1909, has not only established a fine and healthful relationship of interdependence between the University and its organized alumni, but it has provided the University with a most exceptional succession of able, competent and devoted men for service upon its governing body. To keep alive the spirit and ideals of a university, to make these effective and influential in a thousand communities wherever placed, and to hold high the name and the repute of a long established institution of higher learning, are the chief and continuing duties and responsibilities of alumni.*

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 43-45.

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FACULTY RELATIONS

ADMINISTRATION AND TEACHING

OCTOBER 6, 1902

IN almost every case the university administration of today is merely an expansion of the methods and the machinery characteristic of the administration of the small colleges of yesterday out of which the universities have grown. Administrative work has been done by teachers in active service, and either as deans or as members of important committees they have divided their time between their books and laboratories and their classes on the one hand and their office duties on the other. More than one great teacher and investigator has been spoiled by this division of interest, and much administrative work has been very indifferently done by scholarly men to whom it was a necessary and an irksome task. Another troublesome and time-consuming duty is that of carrying on the very considerable volume of correspondence which finds its way to the desk of the head of a university department. Not only students and other teachers, but the general public, pour in letters of inquiry and request to the more widely known professors, to all of which courtesy requires that answer be made. While it may be true that some of this correspondence is personal in character, yet it is equally true that the larger portion of it would disappear were the person to whom it is addressed no longer a university officer. It is in the University's interest that as little as possible of this administrative drudgery and clerical work be devolved upon the teaching force. . . . Finally, and much more important, the larger administrative posts should be held by men whose duties are largely, perhaps wholly, administrative and who either are, or may become, experts in that portion of the work of the University which is entrusted to their direct oversight and care. We should look for-

ward to the time when the several Deans will be in effect presidents of their respective Schools or Faculties, and as such relieve the President absolutely from any direct contact with matters of detail. . . .

The wisest tendency in administrative development is, I am sure, to relieve teachers and investigators from every unnecessary demand upon their time and strength. The faculties must, of course, be legislative bodies and exercise legislative control over matters of educational policy falling within their several jurisdictions; but their members need not be called upon to serve as executive officers and clerks as well.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

After careful consideration of the recommendations as to the office of Dean, made in the Annual Report for 1903, an amendment to the Statutes was adopted by the Trustees, April 3, 1905, which determines anew the status of this important office in Columbia University.

Since the reorganization of the University in 1890, the Deans have been chosen for a short term of years by the several Faculties, and have been primarily officers of the Faculties. In accepting the office of Dean, professors have been compelled to add to their duties as officers of instruction heavy and often very burdensome administrative labors. For the reasons stated in the Annual Report for 1903 (pp. 17-20), it seems clear that in so large a university as Columbia the office of Dean must tend more and more to become an administrative post, and its incumbent increasingly unable satisfactorily to combine teaching duties with it. This fact is most apparent in the case of those branches of the University's work which are highly differentiated, such as Medicine and Applied Science.

With respect to these Schools, at least, it has seemed imperative to provide for their competent oversight and direction by an executive officer who will not be heavily burdened with teaching

* Report for 1901-2, pp. 18-20.

duties on the one hand, or unduly restricted in his authority and right of initiative, on the other. As time goes on doubtless other Faculties will require the service of Deans who are in like situation; but for the moment it has seemed wise and possible to make provision for the complete application of this principle only in the case of the Faculties of Medicine and of Applied Science.

By the terms of the new Statute, the Deans are now appointed by the Trustees upon the nomination of the President, and serve for an indefinite term. As heretofore, each Dean is *ex-officio* a member of the University Council. Hereafter, in addition to being an officer of the Faculty to which he is assigned, each Dean will also be an officer of the University as a whole, in and for that Faculty. It will be his duty to oversee and guide the work of the several departments of instruction included in it, to make sure that the teaching is properly organized and efficiently given, and to keep constantly before the University the needs and ambitions of the Faculty for the improvement and development of their work. Only lack of means prevents the University from compensating properly without delay the officers who have undertaken these heavy and very responsible duties.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

One of the unsatisfactory aspects of the relations between the individual teacher and his college or university lies in the procedure, or rather lack of procedure, that is followed when a person teaching in one institution is sought by the authorities of another. It appears to give some teachers no qualms of conscience to receive and to consider an invitation from another institution without discussing this with colleagues or administrative authorities of the institution which they are serving, or even without revealing it to them. In fact there is a certain surreptitiousness about the tendering and accepting invitations to pass from one college or university to another that is not creditable either to

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 20-21.

those who tender the invitations or to those who receive and either accept or reject them. A high standard of professional honor and professional obligation would seem to require that an institution which wishes to tender an invitation to an officer of professorial rank elsewhere, should advise the president of the sister institution of that fact; and similarly that when it is desired to tender an invitation to an officer of less than professorial rank, advice of that fact should be sent to the head of the department of the college or university in which the person in question is serving. Academic officers are very quick to resent being invited to withdraw from service, no matter how serious the reason, but many of them have no compunctions whatever in deserting their assigned work on short notice, or on no notice at all, in order either to accept service in another institution, or to enter upon a profitable business undertaking, or to give expression to their emotions. There can be no serious standards of professional conduct in the calling of academic teacher until matters like these are regarded as important and are given their place as controlling influences in shaping conduct.*

DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION

OCTOBER 5, 1903

In Columbia University the teaching unit is the Department. Departments are grouped in Faculties, each Faculty having legislative control of a School or Schools. Often a single Department is represented in two, or even three, Faculties. The academic relations and the intellectual sympathy of some Departments are much closer than those of others, and for some time past there has been a movement to join two or more cognate Departments into an informal organization known as a Division, for the better correlation of courses of instruction and for the issuance of a joint announcement to the public. In this way the Departments of Semitic, Indo-Iranian, and Chinese made up the Division of

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 51-52.

Oriental Languages, and the Departments of Philosophy, Psychology, and Education constituted a Division of that name. The advantages of the divisional conference, and its loose organization, were so obvious, that on January 14, 1903, the President addressed a circular letter to the heads of the several Departments, suggesting that the divisional grouping be extended throughout the University — excepting the strictly professional courses in the Schools of Law and Medicine — and that the Divisions be constituted as follows:

Division of Biology:

Departments of Anatomy, Bacteriology, Botany, Physiology, Physiological Chemistry, and Zoölogy.

Division of Chemistry:

Departments of Chemistry and Physiological Chemistry.

Division of Classical Philology:

Departments of Greek and Latin.

Division of Education (Faculty of Teachers College).

Division of Engineering:

Departments of Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, Mechanical Engineering.

Division of Fine Arts:

Departments of Architecture, Comparative Literature, Fine Arts, and Music.

Division of Geology, Geography, and Mineralogy:

Departments of Geology, Geography, and Mineralogy.

Division of History and Political Science (Faculty of Political Science):

Department of Economics and Social Science, History, and Public Law and Jurisprudence.

Division of Mathematical and Physical Science:

Department of Astronomy, Mathematics, Mechanics, and Physics.

Division of Mining and Metallurgy:

Departments of Metallurgy and Mining.

Division of Modern Languages and Literatures:

Departments of Comparative Literature, English, Germanic Languages, and Romance Languages.

Division of Oriental Languages:

Departments of Chinese, Indo-Iranian Languages, and Semitic Languages.

Division of Philosophy and Psychology:

Departments of Anthropology, Philosophy, and Psychology.

Division of Physical Education:

Department of Physical Education.

The precise objects of the divisional organization are: (1) to reduce the number of special circulars now printed by the University; (2) to present clearly a summary statement of the equipment and the instruction offered in any given group of subjects by the entire University, including Barnard College and Teachers College; and (3) to unify the work of each Department of the University and secure the interest of each officer of instruction in the entire work of his Department. One result will be the issuance hereafter of divisional announcements only, instead of departmental announcements as they have heretofore existed. The organization of the Divisions proceeded with such rapidity and effectiveness that the announcements for the new year are issued in the new form. . . .

It is understood, of course, that the organization of these more or less informal Divisions will in no wise limit the existing authority of any Department or its head, nor will it infringe upon the prerogatives of any existing Faculty. It has been undertaken merely as an important step in unifying the work of the several Departments of the University whose work is more or less closely related, and in increasing the effectiveness of the presentation of that work to the public.*

* Report for 1902-3, pp. 20-23.

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

A Department is an arbitrary division of the field of knowledge based in part upon traditional classifications and separations and in part upon immediate convenience. By University law, all Departments at Columbia extend over the whole University. The Department of English, for example, includes the teachers of English in Columbia College, those in Barnard College, those in Teachers College, and those in the graduate School of Philosophy. As yet not many of the Departments have seen clearly the advantage that would come to them and their work by seizing the opportunity thus presented of studying and knowing from many points of view and in different phases the educational problems connected with that portion of the field of knowledge committed to them. A Department, if truly efficient and well organized, should meet frequently for conference and interchange of views, and all its members should be well informed of any action proposed in its name in any Faculty of the University. Indeed, thoroughly good administration would require that when an individual officer brings forward a proposal in any given Faculty, he should state either that it has the approval and support of the Department to which he belongs, or that, failing to secure such approval and support, he brings it forward on his own initiative. Every Faculty is entitled to know by what and what kind of authority any important proposal requiring action or an expression of opinion is submitted to it. Two or three Departments have now reached a really effective organization and are dealing with problems of teaching and research as they arise with singular skill and power. Others lag behind. That type of individualism which runs rather into idiosyncrasy than into common service is very strong among academic teachers, and where it dominates academic work that work is less well organized and less well performed than elsewhere. Time and the gentle pressure of reasonableness must be trusted to improve these conditions. They cannot be remedied by academic legislation and they can-

not be remedied all at once. Men must be led to see, by the example of those about them, how better to do what they think is already being done as well as possible.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

A close observer of the life of Columbia cannot fail to notice how year by year old theories and old forms are giving way to new facts and new needs. It has been pointed out in more than one Annual Report that the growth of the Department as a unit of teaching and administration is undermining the importance of the historic division of the teaching staff into Faculties. More and more the Faculties confine themselves to hearing and approving the recommendations of Departments, and they find it increasingly difficult to determine the limits, or supposed limits, of their own intellectual interest and authority. Teachers may be artificially divided into groups bearing certain names, but the subjects that they teach are not quite so tractable. These subjects fade insensibly one into another or overlap each other in a score of ways. It is increasingly hard to find a logical reason for the distinction between pure science and applied science, and the barriers between political science, philosophy and law have long since become mere shadows. In similar fashion the distinction between graduate and undergraduate is breaking down, and necessarily so. The field of study is now so wide and the number of separate subjects so great that if a student is to take up certain subjects at all he can only take them up in succession, and that succession will bring the elementary study of some of these subjects at the period when he has completed work sufficient to entitle him to receive a baccalaureate degree. He will, therefore, be a graduate student; but he may well be engaged, in part at least, upon the very elements of some subject not theretofore pursued by him but which others have followed as College Sophomores or even as College Freshmen. Nowhere is the academic organization of the future so clearly foreshadowed as in the work of

* Report for 1908-9, pp. 33-35.

the Summer Session and of Extension Teaching. There all Faculties merge into one and all subjects take their place, not by reason of an artificial classification into illogical groups but simply in alphabetical order for convenience of reference. Both in the Summer Session and in Extension Teaching the student takes the work that is fitted to his individual capacity and needs, and he receives whatever academic reward or credential is appropriate. In each case a small administrative board plans the work and a single executive officer is responsible for its execution. Teachers are free to teach and investigators to investigate. It will not require any announcement of administrative policy or any committee report, much less any organized movement, to cause this fortunate condition to spread itself in time over the entire University organization; the force of educational gravitation will do the work without official aid. . . .

It requires a pretty acute vision to detect the line that cuts off anatomy, bacteriology, biological chemistry, pathology and physiology from the other natural and experimental sciences. Law is in a similar situation. The methods by which it is now taught make increasing use of historical and economic knowledge and of business experience. The time is not far distant when he will be thought a poorly equipped student of law who has not obtained a sound training in economic theory, in political history and in social science. In France this fact has been recognized for some time, but the rest of the world still lags behind and suffers in consequence. It is neither possible nor necessary to forecast just what form the movement now so plainly visible will ultimately take. It is sufficient to call attention to it and to express sympathy with it as a perfectly natural and unpremeditated development to adapt university organization and work to the changing needs of a very alert and knowledge-seeking generation.*

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 46-48.

LEGISLATIVE BODIES

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

No one thing marks more clearly and surely the advance of the University in unity and homogeneity than the development of the power and authority of the University Council. For more than two years past, acting on the suggestion of the President, the University Council has had under consideration certain important proposals affecting its constitution and functions. Two successive committees of the Council dealt long and carefully with these topics, and, after elaborate consideration and discussion, the Council, at a special meeting held November 22, 1907, adopted resolutions requesting the Trustees to amend in certain particulars the Statutes of the University relating to the Council.

It was proposed, first, that the Council should consist of the Dean and two elected representatives from each Faculty, instead of the Dean and one elected representative, as heretofore. The rapid growth in the teaching staff of the University and the increasing diversity of intellectual interests, together with the fact that the Deans are administrative officers chosen by the Trustees, combined to make this increase in the elected representation on the Council desirable.

It was further recommended that the University Council should, in addition to the discharge of the duties heretofore committed to it, hereafter act after the fashion of a consultative senate. Heretofore it has been the practice to take important recommendations of any single Faculty affecting questions of educational policy directly from that Faculty to the Trustees. The Council proposed that where such recommendations affect general University policies they should not go to the Trustees until the Council had had opportunity to express an opinion concerning them. . . .

The University Council will, therefore, be somewhat larger than heretofore and it will also have opportunity to express its opinion in regard to large matters of educational policy which

originate in, and on the surface appear to affect, a single Faculty only. It cannot be doubted that these changes are wise. Subject to the authority of the Trustees, the President represents the administrative unity of the University, and it is quite as important that the Council should represent its legislative unity. The larger outlook and wider field of view which the Council occupies will often serve to throw useful light upon some specific Faculty proposal and the Trustees will have the advantage of the Council's reflections upon any departure from existing practice that a Faculty may suggest. Furthermore, the proposals of a Faculty will gain weight, not lose it, by this concurrent action of the Council. It is not likely that, save on grounds of urgent financial necessity, any educational proposals made by a Faculty and approved by the Council will fail to secure the sanction of the Trustees. On the other hand, a Faculty may well hesitate to press before the Trustees a proposal which, in the judgment of their colleagues in other parts of the University, does not appear to be advantageous to the general and larger interest. Until the new Statute has had opportunity to work in practice, it is too early to speak with definiteness of its value, but it is, in my judgment, wisely framed, and I anticipate only the happiest results from its practical operation.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

There is strong temptation in a large university to multiply unnecessarily formal business, to institute boards and committees for all sorts of purposes, and even to carry on by elaborate correspondence with officers in adjoining rooms or under the same roof, routine business that could be disposed of in a moment's conversation. The system of faculties or Faculty meetings is an inheritance from an earlier condition in university history, and unless some of its present limitations and disadvantages can be removed, its great advantages will be minimized and lost sight of. The real business of a Faculty is, of course, academic legislation.

* Report for 1907-8, pp. 10-12.

The Statutes of this University state with precision what the legislative authority is that is committed to the Faculties, and a reading of the Statutes will show that this authority is very large indeed. It is by Faculty conference and discussion and by Faculty action that educational policies are shaped and formulated and turned over to the administrative officers to be put into effect. The great temptation which confronts a Faculty, particularly a large one, to do its business entirely by committees and to accept and to approve the reports and recommendations of its committees as a matter of course, contains an element of great danger to the authority and autonomy of the Faculties themselves. For the question naturally suggests itself, why should not these small committees take the place of the large and unwieldy Faculties, and do at once and without the formality of a report and its confirmation, the business which the Statutes commit to the several Faculties.

An illustration of how the committee system works, naturally and almost inevitably, is to be found in the history of the Committee on Higher Degrees, now known as the Executive Committee of the University Council. The real initiative in the control of the degrees of Master of Arts and Doctor of Philosophy has passed by a perfectly natural process to this body. This committee, which represents in its membership various points of view and differing intellectual interests, has become an important and hard-working body. As it exists at present, it was created by resolution of the Council adopted on January 26, 1909, and given the powers which had previously been conferred upon separate Committees on Higher Degrees, on Fellowships and Scholarships, and on Admission to the Non-Professional Graduate Schools. It so happens that the powers and duties thus delegated cover everything which the University Council has to do in regard to the higher degrees. These matters, which at one time occupied a large part of the attention of the Council, are no longer presented to it at all, save in the most formal way as the result of action by the Executive Committee. The reports of

this committee are accepted and concurred in as a matter of course.

When a situation like this has developed, it is obvious that the larger meeting to which such a committee reports must feel itself to be dealing with works of supererogation. In the case of the University Council this consequence has not followed, because the Council has so wide a field of activity and so many important problems to consider and discuss that there is plenty for it to do even after it has turned over to its Executive Committee the matters of detail in regard to higher degrees, to scholarships and fellowships, and similar matters.

With the separate Faculties, however, there appears to be some danger lest by the institution of the committee system the interest of members of the Faculty as a whole in its problem may diminish to the vanishing point. It must be borne in mind that the membership of the Faculties includes many distinguished scholars, who are drawn from their studies and their laboratories to attend stated meetings; if these stated meetings transact nothing but formal business on the report of a committee, and not much of that, it is plain that the ordinary Faculty meeting cannot long continue to excite interest among its members or to maintain their respect. . . .

At Columbia, the Faculties have the sole power of initiative in all legislative matters affecting educational policies. Where a Faculty is reasonably well satisfied with its policies and its program of studies, it naturally tends to let well enough alone and no business is offered to it that is not of a more or less routine character. At a time of academic reconstruction, however, such as existed from 1890 to about 1895, the Faculties were constantly kept busy with the formulation of most important and far-reaching legislative policies. It is not well for a university to be continually engaged in the task of reconstruction, and therefore the practical question is, how, in the interval between such periods, is the general interest of Faculty members and the business of their Faculty to be kept alive and how is it to be made certain

that their views and suggestions in regard to new problems and policies of an educational character can be made articulate and effective? In this connection it must be remembered that anything that releases the scholar from academic routine and clerical business is an undisguised boon to him. The real scholar has no fondness for academic red tape, which, however its amount be reduced, must always exist to some extent in order that business may go forward smoothly and accurately and be fully recorded. The scholar wishes to be let alone with his own studies and his own students in order that he may best serve the purpose for which he has become a member of the University.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

This principle of a single Committee on Undergraduate Admissions appears to be so sound and has worked so well that it may now perhaps be extended to cover admissions to the entire University. The conditions of admission to a given school or college in the University are fixed by its faculty in accordance with the provisions of the Statutes. These conditions of admission having been once fixed, there would appear to be no reason why a single Committee on Admissions could not administer them even more satisfactorily and fairly than is now the case, when these rules and regulations, frequently identical in form, are administered by separate Faculty committees or administrative officers who are not in close touch with each other. It is a consequence of the present plan that a credential which might be given a certain weight in passing upon an application for admission to one part of the University will be quite differently estimated if the person holding it offers himself for admission to some other division of the University's work. In particular, the appraisal of college degrees and of records of work done in other colleges and universities should be consistent and uniform throughout the entire University. I recommend, therefore, that steps be taken to institute a single Committee on Admissions which shall take

* Report for 1909-10, pp. 44-48.

the place of all existing Committees on Admissions, whether to the entering class or to advanced standing both for work offered under the University corporation or in the allied institutions. In this way what has been formally described as the educational system of the University will be more completely unified and the work of admission better and more wisely administered.

Such a plan would have the additional advantage of freeing a certain number of officers of instruction from routine administrative tasks in connection with the admission of candidates and would put that work upon a small group of University officials chosen on account of their special knowledge and experience.

There is one particular in which the examination of candidates for admission is not sufficiently searching. Every candidate for admission to the University should be examined as to his physical fitness to follow and to profit by a college or a university course. In Columbia College a certificate of good health is now required from each candidate for admission, but no similar provision is made elsewhere in the University. The University is expending each year out of the income of its endowment immense sums to supplement the fees paid for tuition, in order to provide the best possible facilities for college and university instruction. The University owes it to the public and to itself to see to it that these colossal expenditures are made only upon and in the interest of those who are really fit physically as well as mentally to take advantage of the opportunities which the University has to offer, and to make appropriate return to the community in the form of personal and social service. There is a careful physical examination insisted upon in the case of candidates for admission to the military and naval academies maintained by the government of the United States. Such an examination has not, however, been usual, and perhaps has not even as yet been instituted, in the so-called literary and scientific institutions of the land. It is a matter well worthy of earnest consideration whether Columbia University should not once more take the lead in formulating educational policy, and provide specifically that physical fitness

as well as intellectual capacity shall hereafter be required of all candidates for admission to the University in any of its parts.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

In connection with this whole matter of university research there is one question of organization and administration about which something should be said. The rapid growth of the various University Departments, and the tendency of some of these Departments to regard themselves as independent academic units instead of the mere informal groups of teachers in related subjects which they really are, make both expensive and difficult the work of organizing the University's investigations and of apportioning the University's funds among them. It is well worth considering whether the University Council, now specifically charged by the Statutes with the duty of encouraging original research, should not constitute or authorize the constitution of an Administrative Board of Research, which Board should receive not only from departments but from individual officers of the University, suggestions for systematic investigations and should select for recommendation to the University Council and to the Trustees those which, in its judgment, should take precedence in the apportionment of whatever funds may be available for research work. Such an Administrative Board, presided over by the Dean of the Graduate Faculties, might very shortly prove to be of unique value, not only to the University as a whole, but to the departments and individual workers as well.†

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

Some time since it was pointed out in these Reports that there was grave danger lest the Faculties of the University should find themselves crushed between the powers of the departments of instruction on the one hand and the authority of the University Council on the other. It is becoming increasingly clear that this

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 13-15.

† Report for 1915-16, p. 6.

s precisely what will happen in the near future unless the Faculties take steps to avoid it. It is quite natural when a statement or motion is made in a Faculty meeting on behalf of a group of teachers who constitute a closely organized department, that it should be accepted and approved as a matter of course. When an administrative officer or an executive committee makes a strong recommendation or reports emergency action, it is equally appropriate that the Faculty should give prompt approval. All this is just as it should be, and indicates not that the University's business is being unwisely or improperly carried on, but that the developments of the past generation have left the Faculties in an anomalous position. The remedy is not to be found in devising new, complicated, and tedious methods of conducting the University, but rather in giving to the Faculties functions and duties that are peculiarly their own and that cannot be discharged by any committee or administrative officer. These functions are the discussion of educational policies and aims, and the modification, when necessary, of the University's organization and methods, so as better to accomplish those aims. In other words, the modern Faculty should be a forum for discussion, for the formulation of opinion and for the working out of large policies, and not a committee for the transaction of routine business. The administrative officers and the existing committees are quite competent to deal with the daily routine and with executive administration and policy, far better than any large Faculty could possibly do. But neither an administrative officer nor a committee can take the place of a Faculty in debating educational policies and in formulating University opinion in regard to them. Unless the Faculties are to become mere recording and approving machines for action taken in their name and by their authority, they must speedily enter upon the highly important task of careful discussion and debate. At all times, and more particularly at a time like the present, there are many subjects pressing for consideration with which a Faculty might helpfully deal. Almost every academic teacher of experience has some criticism to make of existing Uni

versity methods and policies, or some suggestion to offer for their improvement. The place to make these criticisms and to offer these suggestions is not in desultory private conversation, but at a formal meeting of the appropriate Faculty, where such criticisms and suggestions should be welcomed as material for enlightening discussion and debate. The function of the administrative officer in any particular begins when the function of the Faculty as to that particular has been completed.

The experience of the past ten years seems to point clearly to the fact that, general principles and policies having been agreed upon and established, Administrative Boards of say five or seven members each are much more efficient instrumentalities for the transaction of University business than are the large Faculties with from forty to sixty members. Such an Administrative Board is small enough for the minds of its several members to meet in intimate discussion about a table, and it can dispense with those time-consuming parliamentary formalities which appear to be necessary whenever any considerable number of Anglo-Saxons assemble for a common purpose. May not the time have come when we can face frankly the desirability and wisdom of casting off some of the old and outworn customs of University organization and life, in order to free ourselves to deal with the problems of today and tomorrow in the most efficient fashion possible? If so, is there not now opportunity and invitation to consider whether the entire teaching body of the University could not with advantage be reorganized and reconstituted, by the substitution for the hitherto existing Faculties of a new type of organization, wholly modern in character, which should emphasize, on the one hand, the essential unity of the University and the common interest of every University teacher in the problems and policies of the institution as a whole, and on the other hand, the desirability of conducting modern University business in accordance with those methods which experience most completely justifies? Such an organization might perhaps consist of a Plenum, composed of all the teachers and administrative officers of

the rank of Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, or Instructor; of Administrative Boards for Graduate Studies, for Columbia College, for Law, for Medicine, for Engineering, for Architecture, for Journalism, for Business, for Summer Session, and for Extension Teaching, leaving the Faculties of Barnard College and Teachers College (Education and Practical Arts) as they now are; and of the University Council, composed as now both of administrative officers and of elected representatives of the teaching staff.

It would be the function of the Plenum to discuss, in perhaps three or four meetings each year, the larger questions of University policy, and to give expression to the mind of the teaching staff in regard to these. It might be provided that the functions of the Plenum should be like those of the University Council, advisory as to certain specified matters and legislative as to certain other specified matters.

The Administrative Boards would be, like the present Administrative Boards, in effect executive committees, but they would also have some of the powers of the present Faculties, subject to the legislative authority of the Plenum and of the University Council.

The powers and duties of the University Council, which are very satisfactorily defined at present, should remain as they are, but the elected membership of the Council might be increased to say thirty, and the representatives be chosen by the Plenum for a three-year term and divided into classes, so that the terms of one-third of the elected membership would expire at the close of each academic year. For any action by the Plenum legislative in character the concurrence of the University Council should be necessary, and the power of the Council in respect of the several Administrative Boards should be precisely what it is at present in respect of the several Faculties and Administrative Boards.

From such a reorganization two clear benefits might be expected to follow: There would be a forum which does not now exist in which any individual teacher might bring forward in the

hearing of all his colleagues any proposition which seemed to him desirable in the interest of the University's usefulness; and no burdened teacher would be called upon to attend purely formal and perfunctory meetings at which the only business presented is that of approving something which has already been thoroughly well done or provided for by an executive committee or administrative officer.*

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 15-19.

XXI

STUDENT RELATIONS

DISCIPLINE AND SELF-GOVERNMENT

NOVEMBER 6, 1905

AT Columbia there is no elaborate code of regulations to govern the conduct of students. There is but one rule, and that is to treat students as gentlemen and to expect them to behave as such. Hazing is not and will not be permitted in any form, at any time, or under any circumstances; and any student who undertakes to annoy or haze another, either singly or in concert with his fellows, will be punished as severely as the circumstances in any particular case appear to justify. The Board of Student Representatives, consisting of the presidents of each of the four classes in Columbia College and in the Schools of Applied Science, have taken a strong and fine attitude in regard to the matter of hazing and student order, and to the influence of that Board and the good sense of the vast majority of the student body may safely be trusted the good name of the University. When and if, in spite of the influence of the Board of Student Representatives and of the overwhelming majority of students, acts of hazing or other disorder occur, those who are responsible for them, when known, will be promptly suspended or dismissed from the University.

It may be desirable to place on record a statement of the system by which discipline is administered at Columbia. The Statutes of the University, Chapter I, Section 2, include the following among the duties of the President:

To administer discipline in such cases as he deems proper, and to empower the Deans of the several Faculties to administer discipline in such manner and under such regulations as he shall prescribe.

In accordance with this statutory provision, the President on April 14, 1903, advised the several Deans that it was his desire

to have all cases of academic discipline dealt with by the Dean of the Faculty in which the offending student is primarily registered. At the same time the President submitted to the Deans the following statement for their guidance in administering academic discipline:

1. By the Statutes of the University, every student is held to be subject to the disciplinary powers of the University authorities.
2. The disciplinary powers of the University authorities extend to any conduct prejudicial to the effective and orderly administration of the University, as well as to offenses against the order and good morals of the community.
3. Discipline will be administered by the Dean of the Faculty in which the offending student is primarily registered.
4. After statement to the student of the charges against him, and after the student has been given opportunity to be heard in his own defense, the Dean will announce his decision; and, if he finds the student guilty, will fix the penalty.
5. In case this penalty is permanent separation from the University, it shall be effective only upon the approval of the President.

From this statement it appears that except under extraordinary circumstances the several Deans are the sole disciplinary officers of the University. They act, in fact, as judicial officers, making such inquiry as seems to them desirable and hearing the accused in his own defense. The system is both simple and effective, but it is sincerely to be hoped that it may require to be put in operation with diminishing frequency.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1908

The educational value to the students themselves of having some power of initiative and some rights of control in regard to their own most important interests is very great. Moreover, the

* Report for 1904-5, pp. 31-33.

constitution of the Board [of Student Representatives] as adopted makes it certain that the steadying power and influence of the maturer students will always find expression. Only the happiest results are to be expected from this interesting and important step.*

NOVEMBER 7, 1910

There is a common, but groundless, assumption that the individual student receives more care and attention in a small institution than in a large one. There is absolutely no basis for this belief. The individual student will not receive any care in either a large institution or a small one, if it is not the habit and tradition of the institution to care for him and to take an interest in him. That habit and that tradition are just as compatible with the organization of a large institution as with that of a small one; indeed, a large institution is more likely than is a small one to be able to afford the provision which the needs of the individual student require.†

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

A well-organized group of American youth such as is to be found at any college or university of considerable size offers almost irresistible temptation to the propagandist. It seems to the ardent supporter of some new movement the most natural thing in the world that he should be permitted, in season and out of season, to harangue college and university students on the subject around which he feels that the whole world revolves. Any attempt to protect the students or the reputation of a given college or university for sobriety and sanity of judgment, is forthwith attacked as a movement toward the suppression of free speech. A portion of the newspaper press and not a few of their more constant correspondents are aroused to action, and pretty soon there is a full-fledged agitation in progress directed against those

* Report for 1907-8, p. 23.

† Report for 1909-10, p. 40.

responsible for the administration and good order of the college or university in question. In particular, the agitation in favor of woman suffrage, and those in favor of what is called prohibition or of what is called socialism, are most active and determined in seeking to use colleges and universities as agencies and instruments of propaganda.

It may properly be pointed out that in each of these cases, and in others that are similar, there is not and cannot be involved any question of free speech in the proper sense of that term. There is no good reason why the youth who are committed to the care of a college or university should be turned over by that college or university to any agitators or propagandists who may present themselves. On the other hand, there is every reason why the college or university should protect its students from outside influences of this sort. The sound and proper policy appears to be for a college or university to see to it that its students receive information and instruction on all of these subjects, and on similar matters that interest large groups of people, from its own responsible officers of instruction or from scholarly experts selected by them because of their competence and good sense. For many years it has been the rule at Columbia University, established in 1891 by President Low, that any bona fide organization of students interested in a political or social movement and wishing to organize a club or association in support thereof might hold one meeting for organization in the University buildings, but that, so far as clubs and associations interested in political or highly contentious subjects were concerned, all subsequent meetings must be held outside of the University precincts. This plan has worked well for nearly twenty-five years. The University has been most hospitable to clubs and organizations of every sort, provided they were organized in good faith by duly registered students. Under the operation of this rule, no serious abuses have arisen and no charge has been made, or could justly be made, that freedom of speech was in any way interfered with or limited. On the other hand, the University and its students have been pro-

tected from constant and persistent agitation, during political campaigns in particular, in regard to matters that lie quite outside the main business and purpose of the University.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

Somewhat later [following the occurrence of several similar offenses in the spring of 1917], a student in Columbia College whose earlier record elsewhere had involved him in difficulty, appeared in public on at least one significant occasion and brought the University's name into disrepute by identifying himself with notorious persons who had been convicted of sundry offenses and with their expressions relating to patriotism, loyalty, and the conduct of the war. He, too, was notified by direction of the President that he would not be again acceptable as a student in Columbia University. In this case an action was brought in the Supreme Court to compel the University to re-admit this former student to its rolls. In denying a motion for an order to this end, the Court, speaking by Mr. Justice Mullan, used the following language, which it would be difficult to improve:

I think it will be conceded that the duty of an institution of learning is not met by the mere imparting of what commonly goes under the name of knowledge. By the common consent of civilized mankind through the ages, not the least important of the functions of a school or college has been to instil and sink deep in the minds of its students the love of truth and the love of country. Is such conduct as that of the plaintiff calculated to make it more difficult for the defendant university to inculcate patriotism in those of its student members — if there be such unfortunates — who are without it? Does language of the sort used by the plaintiff at public meetings — for I assume that he is in substance correctly quoted — make him a real or potential menace to the morale of the defendant's student body and a blot on the good name of the famous and honored university whose degree he seeks? There may be two answers to these questions, but I see only one. We are a tolerant people, not easily stirred, prone to an easy-going indulgence to those who are opposed to the very essence and vitals of our organized social life, but there must of necessity be a limit somewhere to the forbearance that can

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 22-23.

with safety be extended to the forces of destruction that hide behind the dishonestly assumed mask of the constitutional right of free speech.

Probably no one has better stated than has Mr. Justice Mullan in the sentence last quoted the exact facts which today confront the nation as a whole, as well as every institution within that nation which aims to reflect, to protect, and to advance the fundamental principles and the highest aims of the American people and their government. These words of the Court should be burned into the consciousness of every American citizen, and particularly that of every member of every American college or university, whether he be teacher or taught. The dishonestly assumed mask of the constitutional right of free speech will never be permitted by any people or by any institution that retains its sanity, to protect those who wage subtle war upon private morality, or public order, or public safety.

One of the few points upon which practically all writers on education agree is that a chief aim, if not the chief aim, of the educational process is good character. It is quite idle, then, to suppose that a university may overlook a student's character, wherever or however manifested, and be called upon to confer upon him its honors and rewards simply because he has complied with certain formal rules as to academic residence, fulfilled certain prescribed intellectual tests, and paid certain designated fees. Such a view of the university's relation to the student would convert the university into a factory and make its degrees and rewards merely a matter of manufacture, bargain, and sale, and not a matter of education at all.*

CONTROL OF COLLEGE ATHLETICS†

OCTOBER 3, 1904

The widespread public interest in intercollegiate athletic contests, their popularity with the student body, and their manifest

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 40-41.

† See also "Athletics and Other Activities," pp. 233-36.

dangers if left to develop without responsible control, raise some difficult problems in any large university. These contests are surrounded by moral as well as by physical danger. The temptation to neglect serious intellectual work for the sake of the game, the handling of large sums of money by young men who have never had opportunity for business training or to bear serious responsibility, repeated absences from the University on long journeys, the false standards of excellence that are often built upon the applause of the crowd, the risk of serious physical injury due to improper physical condition, and the relaxing of ethical standards in a feverish anxiety to win, are dangers of no small magnitude. For a university to overlook them is to abdicate as an educational institution. No mass of learning will compensate for wrecked health, debased morals, or false ideals.

To prohibit intercollegiate athletic contests is, in my opinion, more than unwise; it is unreasonable. To regulate and control them, however, is of the first importance. . . .

The system of control [by the University Committee on Student Organizations and the University Committee on Athletics] here described is now fully established; it is working without friction and has the support of both alumni and students. It firmly establishes University control over the participation by students in athletic contests, and it draws a sharp line between the functions of University officers and those of representative alumni and students in exercising this control. On the business side it involves training as well as supervision. For its success the University is in large measure indebted to the support and co-operation of those alumni who have promptly responded to every call that has been made upon them for advice and assistance.

From a theoretical point of view much may be said for the endowment of intercollegiate athletic sports and the abolition of gate receipts, as has often been proposed. But so long as Columbia is in urgent need of large sums for the support of instruction and research and for the erection of buildings, and so long as the present system of financial control is in satisfactory operation,

it would be an error of judgment to ask that we be put in possession of the large sum of money necessary to endow our athletic sports.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1906

During the autumn of 1905 various occurrences took place which served to focus public attention upon the game of football as it had come to be played by American college students. The various changes which had been made from time to time in the rules governing the game had completely altered its original character. Moreover, the vigor of the more important contests and the excitement attending them had proved most attractive to a large portion of the public outside of the universities, so that they took on more and more the character of a public spectacle instead of a sport. While to many the game had become intensely uninteresting, to others it represented the most interesting and important thing in the world. Immense crowds were attracted to witness the contests, and sums equal to the annual income of many an American college were received in gate money in a single day. Football, indeed, threatened to overshadow, and in some institutions did already overshadow, every other academic interest. The example of the colleges had speedily been followed by the secondary schools, the game was increasingly popular there, and not a few schoolmasters were beginning to complain of the evils which afflicted the colleges. Appreciation of these facts had been growing in the public mind for some years past and the events of the football season of 1905 brought matters to a crisis. Not only were participants in the contests often injured and sometimes killed, but the whole effect of the intense absorption in the game was antagonistic to the purposes and ideals of American colleges and universities. Because the game was obviously popular and because participation in it was supposed to advertise an institution of learning and to attract students, it was either applauded, or excuses were made for it, by many persons who should have known better.

* Report for 1903-4, pp. 28-29, 34-35.

Not only did all the disadvantages above mentioned surround the game of football, but it had become a game in which the large majority of students could not participate. It required of most participants great weight and unusual physical strength; of others, swiftness of foot and highly trained powers of attack and defense. It was not a game that could be played in order to gain ordinary physical exercise. It required arduous training, almost complete absorption, and exceptional physical powers. As a result, it had come to be at war with every sound principle of college sport or athletic exercise. The moral qualities which it was supposed to foster were not strongly in evidence. The most important football games had become in fact purely professional contests, for professionalism is not so much a thing of money as it is a thing of spirit and point of view. At times when students should themselves be taking physical exercise for their own good, they stood grouped by hundreds watching a contest between trained representatives of their own institution and another. That these contests were gladiatorial in character, the history of the last few years of the game plainly proves. After nineteen hundred years, the words of Seneca were again applicable:

Man, who ought to be sacred to his fellow-man, is now killed by sport. . . . Kill him! Hammer him! Roast him! What makes him so shy of jumping on the gridiron? Why doesn't he knock them out? Does he want to live forever? . . . Tell me, do you not understand even this much: that disgraceful exhibitions react on those who permit them?

Seneca was right. The most serious effects of intercollegiate football were not worked upon the participants but upon the spectators and upon the general public. The participants were very often entirely unconscious of the criticism to which they exposed themselves, but there is not wanting evidence that the spectators, particularly the student spectators, were often swept into a vortex of hysteria and emotionalism which left its permanent mark upon their characters. . . .

It is the strong desire of the University authorities to do more

for the development of athletic sports than has been done in the past. It is their wish so to arrange and adjust University exercises and University duties that each student may find ample time for physical exercise or outdoor sport and may be encouraged to engage in them. It is hoped that it may soon be possible to make provision by which large numbers of students may be led to participate in outdoor sports, particularly in rowing, track athletics, cross-country running, baseball, tennis, lacrosse, and the so-called soccer form of football. The physical, mental, and moral benefits resulting from such participation are well known, and it is an unfortunate result of the system now usually followed in American institutions of learning that participation in sport is confined to the very few and the highly skilled. It would be a vast improvement from every point of view if intercollegiate contests were less numerous and less important, and if intracollegiate contests came to excite more interest and attention.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

That education is narrow and incomplete which does not include provision for the health, the physical exercise, and the play of those who are making formal and systematic preparation for life. An education made up of instruction alone would be singularly barren.

The newly acquired property, to which the Trustees have formally given the name of Baker Field, will enable the University not only to fulfill the ambitions and hopes of the students of today and tomorrow, but also to achieve one of the aims and ideals of its educational system. Here physical exercise can be had under almost perfect conditions; here the foundations of health and physical comfort can be firmly laid; here those personal associations that mean so much in after life, can be formed; and here character can be both tested and trained.

Moreover, through its possession and use of Baker Field, Columbia University can once more show its concern for the

* Report for 1905-6, pp. 42-44, 47.

interests and the satisfactions of the people of New York. To this field they will shortly come in large numbers to enjoy those admirable spectacles of generous rivalry and free competition which stir the emotions and give widespread enjoyment. New York will be the gainer because Columbia is better furnished for its task.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1930

Painful and disagreeable as was the action taken by the University Council in 1905 [abolition of football as a University sport], there can now be no doubt that that action contributed greatly to saving and improving a form of athletic contest which makes a powerful appeal to students, to alumni, and to the general public. That fact is now admitted by many of those who most vigorously criticized the action of the Council at the time it was taken.

The abuses of intercollegiate athletics are many and various and it is exceedingly difficult to bring about their remedy. So obsessed are many alumni with a passion for victory at all costs that they are quite willing to shut their eyes to very discreditable happenings which reflect sadly upon their own colleges in a way which no series of victories on the athletic field can possibly overcome. The enormous cost of these intercollegiate football contests and the still more enormous revenues which are produced by them, if a team or a particular institution gains a reputation for success, are a constant and justifiable source of academic as well as public criticism. These would be appropriate enough, no doubt, if the contestants were professional athletes as in England, for example, but they are certainly unbecoming when the contestants are chosen from groups of young Americans whose primary duty and opportunity at the moment are to prepare themselves adequately for life and for living.

If all colleges and universities which participate in intercollegiate athletic contests would consistently restrict themselves

* Report for 1921-22, p. 11.

to participants of undoubted academic qualifications and standing and without any present financial inducement or assistance to participate in intercollegiate athletics, the situation would be comparatively simple. Unfortunately, however, this is not the case. Those institutions whose administrative authorities stand up straight, and even lean over backwards, in the matter of conditions of admission and standards of scholarship in college, are punished on the playing field when those who represent them come in contest with athletic teams constituted of very different material from theirs. The public knows little or nothing of all this and assumes that a student is everywhere a student, that a college athletic team is everywhere a college athletic team, and that there are no elements of difference between the contestants save skill. The true situation, however, is often something quite different, and the institution which insists upon maintaining its academic standards at all costs may find itself heavily handicapped each autumn when the football season opens and remain handicapped until that season ends, so far, at least, as athletic repute and income from athletic contests are concerned.

What is the remedy? Athletics are far too important to be permitted to pass out of undergraduate life. Intercollegiate athletic contests, under proper conditions and on academic playing fields, have a place of their own that is both interesting and important. Is there no way by which effective academic control can be exercised through institutional coöperation to bring to an end the obvious abuses that now threaten, as they did twenty-five years ago, the whole scheme of intercollegiate athletics? Perhaps what is needed is an academic Athletic League of Nations to take jurisdiction over this entire field of endeavor and to preserve what is excellent while shutting out what is unbecoming and unworthy. . . .

Perhaps the one satisfactory and permanent solution of these problems is that athletic sports, being a well-recognized part of undergraduate life and undergraduate training, should be suitably and adequately endowed by the alumni. Were this done, it

would then be possible at one stroke to bring to an end the importance and influence of gate receipts, and to put baseball and football, for example, on the same excellent plane that rowing has long occupied. If there were no gate receipts to be sought and none of the glory that produces gate receipts to be gained, it would then appear possible so to organize the administration and control of athletic sports and intercollegiate athletic contests as to secure the continued interest and coöperation not only of the undergraduate students but of the great body of alumni and to gain from these sports and contests a maximum of benefit. Until something of this sort is done Columbia must remain one of those colleges which pays the penalty, if penalty it be, of insisting upon the primacy of intellectual ideals and intellectual accomplishment.*

NOVEMBER 2, 1931

The play instinct is powerful among men and is something to be reckoned with in an intelligently directed academic or social system. This is better understood in Great Britain, in Germany, and in Italy than in the United States. This instinct is to be dealt with and directed during the undergraduate educational process as something which may have important physical, intellectual and emotional effects and advantages. It so happens that a sport-loving public has been influential in turning intercollegiate athletic contests into undertakings projected on a vast scale so that they become wholly unacademic and too often purely commercial in spirit. The chief purpose in integrating all forms of undergraduate sport with the work of the Department of Physical Education and bringing these under academic supervision and control, is to make sure that they shall hereafter be carried on as an important and legitimate part of academic life and work, and not looked upon merely as a means of entertaining the general public at huge cost and in return for still more huge gate receipts.†

* Report for 1929-30, pp. 38-39, 41.

† Report for 1930-31, p. 39.

XXII

UNIVERSITY FINANCE

THE UNIVERSITY AND ENDOWMENTS

NOVEMBER 4, 1907

So much has been said, and so often said, in previous reports concerning the need of new endowment, that there is little use in repeating those statements here. It is desirable, however, that once more the fact be placed on record that the endowment of Columbia University is too small, by several millions of dollars, to enable it to meet its educational obligations, to say nothing of extending those obligations in ways and by methods that are commendable and desirable.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1915

It is a corollary of the budget system that no money may be paid out by the Treasurer except in accordance with the provisions of the budget, unless the Trustees by special vote authorize a subsequent and supplemental appropriation for any purpose. This action is very rarely taken, and it is never taken save to meet an unforeseen emergency. . . .

The cost of instruction in each Department is clearly shown, as is the cost of maintaining libraries, laboratories and departmental studies. No attempt is made to apportion among the different Schools, Faculties and Departments of instruction the so-called general or overhead charges of university administration. No good purpose would be served by undertaking such an apportionment, which could do no more than gratify an idle statistical curiosity. A university is not a factory; the systems of cost accounting which are useful in promoting scientific management in a mill or a machine shop are wholly foreign to a univer-

* Report for 1906-7, p. 9.

sity's spirit and purpose, and quite meaningless when applied to university accounts.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

These problems and these needs [increases in salaries and new buildings] are the stuff of which a university's life and a university's business are made up. If the University was truly described in 1902 as a giant in bonds, then in 1916 it is a whole company of giants bound hand and foot by financial impotence. This is the situation with which the Trustees are day by day confronted, and it will remain to confront them, in one form or another, until the time when their capital funds are increased by about \$30,000,000.

The simple fact is that Columbia University is under-capitalized. If it is possible for a great industrial enterprise to procure all the capital it needs when the return is but 20, or 10, or even 5 percent, why should a university be held back from accomplishment, through lack of sufficient capital, when the returns are everlasting and are to be measured in terms of human life, human satisfaction, and human achievements? †

NOVEMBER 5, 1917

The amount which the Government will receive in revenue from these provisions [of the War Revenue Act, taxing inheritances and bequests], if they are kept upon the statute book, will be very small in comparison with the grave damage thereby inflicted upon the educational, philanthropic, and religious institutions of the country. It would be indeed disastrous if the many and far-reaching changes that are to accompany the war and the new forms of taxation which the war will compel, took such a form as to imperil the effectiveness and even the existence of the great philanthropic and educational institutions of the country. It is the well-established tradition of American life that all pos-

* Report for 1914-15, pp. 6-7.

† Report for 1915-16, pp. 9-10.

sible encouragement shall be given to those individuals and groups of individuals who labor to aid the spiritual and intellectual life of the nation or to relieve suffering and want, by building up and maintaining institutions of religion, of philanthropy, and of education. In many states indirect aid is given to such institutions through the exemption from taxation in whole or in part of property actually occupied by them or used solely for their institutional work. As a result of this wise and far-sighted policy, there has been built up in the United States, without public tax, a great group of religious, philanthropic, and educational undertakings that are the glory of the country and the envy of other nations. To institutions of this kind there has been for nearly a century past a constant flow of private benefactions. Legacies and bequests made to them are, as a rule, free from the usual transfer and inheritance taxes, on the principle that these legacies and bequests represent private moneys transferred to public uses. If the effect of taxing gifts, legacies, and bequests of this kind were to dry up the streams of benefaction by which so much of all that is best in the United States has heretofore been fertilized and strengthened, the result would be lamentable in the extreme. Thirty-four states and the Territory of Hawaii exempt, in whole or in part, from the operation of their several inheritance tax laws, bequests for educational, charitable, and other public purposes. The Act to Provide Ways and Means to Meet War Expenditures, approved June 30, 1898, as originally enacted, contained no exemption of gifts to charities, but this defect was remedied by the amending Act of March 2, 1901. Later, by the Act of June 27, 1902, the Congress provided that the Secretary of the Treasury should refund all taxes which had been paid upon bequests or legacies of this character under the terms of the original Act of 1898. In this way all taxes levied under the act mentioned, upon property passing for religious, literary, charitable, educational, and other similar uses were repealed.

The strongest possible pressure should be brought to bear

upon the Congress to take similar action now and to exempt, without delay, from the operation of the federal estate tax law, legacies and bequests to educational, philanthropic, and religious institutions. To urge this is not to ask a favor, but rather to assure the continuance of a characteristic American public policy, the results of which have been beneficent in the extreme and greatly to the credit and advantage of the American people.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

At not infrequent intervals proposals are made that the University take over and administer certain properties, real or personal, which those who make the proposals appear to believe to be gifts to the University and for its benefit. In fact, however, these are often proposals that the University shall act, under the narrowest of restrictions, to carry out some purpose which the individual making the proposal has in mind but which may not be at all germane to the work of the University or in accordance with its desires for expansion and improvement. Still other proposals are made that the Trustees shall accept certain property for administration and guarantee that such property shall always produce a stated minimum income. It is clear that such proposals are not really gifts to the University, but rather invitations to assume new obligations, often with grave financial liability attached, for purposes which, however commendable, are not of the University's own choosing. When a person parts with the possession and administration of a considerable amount of property with a view to its being used for a public or quasi-public purpose, it is not difficult to understand that such an individual may seem justified in thinking that he is making a gift. But if it so happens that he uses the University as an uncompensated administrator, and in addition requires the University to guarantee from its own resources any deficiency in the annual income from the property so transferred, it is plain that so far as the University is concerned there is no gift whatever. It cannot be too fre-

* Report for 1916-17, pp. 9-11.

quently emphasized that the available resources of a university are not increased by adding to the obligation of its trustees to administer funds, however large, for purposes that lie outside of and beyond the natural and normal work of the university. If the resources of a university are to be really increased, the trustees must have at their free disposal new and expanding sources of income. Unrestricted gifts and bequests are really additions to a university's capacity for usefulness. The same may be said of gifts or bequests for designated purposes when the designated purpose is one that lies within the scope of the university's usual organization and work or makes possible a needed and desired addition to that organization and work.

Under no circumstances should, or can, any self-respecting university accept a gift upon conditions which fix or hamper its complete freedom in the control of its own educational policies and activities. To accept a gift on condition that a certain doctrine or theory be taught or be not taught, or on condition that a certain administrative policy be pursued or be not pursued, is to surrender a university's freedom and to strike a blow at what should be its characteristic independence. Indeed, any donor who would venture to attempt to bind a university, either as to the form or the content of its teaching or as to its administrative policies, would be a dangerous person. Unless the public can have full faith in the intellectual and moral integrity of its universities, and complete confidence that they direct and are responsible for their own policies, there can be no proper and helpful relationship between the universities and the public. A university may accept a gift to extend and improve its teaching of history, but it may not accept a gift to put a fixed and definite interpretation, good for all time, upon any of the facts of history. A university may accept a gift to increase the salaries of its professors, but it may not accept a gift for such purpose on condition that the salaries of professors shall never exceed a stated maximum, or that some professors shall be restricted as others are not in their personal, literary or scientific activities. No university is so poor

that it can afford to accept a gift which restricts its independence, and no university is so rich that it would not be impoverished by an addition to its resources which tied the hands of its governing board.

A purpose often designated by benefactors is the provision of scholarships for students through which those who are in less comfortable circumstances may be aided in meeting the cost of a college or university education. This, it goes without saying, is a commendable purpose; but the time has come, it is indeed past, when it is still more necessary to provide funds for the suitable compensation of college and university teachers and investigators. The growth of an institution in numbers may conceivably result in its impoverishment if the margin between receipts from tuition fees and the cost of maintenance and instruction is sufficiently wide.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

The late Francis S. Bangs, whose notable service as Trustee is gratefully and affectionately remembered, used to say that it was the sole duty of the Committee on Finance to find whatever sums the Committees on Education and on Buildings and Grounds might state to be necessary to carry on adequately the work of the University. This is a characteristically blunt and emphatic way of stating an essential truth. The financial administration of a university is something quite distinct from the financial administration of an industrial or other money-making corporation. In the case of a university, there are no dividends to be paid, no surplus to be laid aside, no extensive depreciation accounts to be opened, and no bonds to be sold which require for the selling a balance sheet of a particular character. The financial administration of a university involves only the scrupulous and conservative care of the property and invested funds of the corporation, strict adherence to the terms of established trusts, and the application of the corporation's income from all sources to the support and development of the work for which the university

* Report for 1918-19, pp. 6-9.

has come into being. Educational policy and educational needs dominate and direct the entire financial administration. The wisdom with which educational policies are formulated and carried out, and the skill and promptness with which educational needs are met, furnish the chief basis for that public confidence in the administration of a university which results in a steady flow of benefactions by gift and by bequest. In some cases, many of which are of large importance, gifts and bequests may be directly traced to the influence or suggestion of a given individual; more often, however, they are the result of that general and widespread feeling of confidence and regard which a well-administered university brings into existence, first, in the community where it is placed, and second, in the nation which it aims to serve.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

As was pointed out in the Annual Report for 1932, university development in the United States has come to the end of an era. The great fortunes which have been accumulating during the past two generations under the economic, social and political conditions then prevailing, have now either disintegrated or otherwise disappeared. The noble habit of public benefaction, which had become so firmly established in the United States, to the untold advantage of the American people, is now broken through lack of means with which to continue. The constant siphoning off of the earnings and savings of the people through taxation to the public treasury, there to be used with very varying degrees of wisdom and public benefit, would of itself compel numberless institutions of public service to seek new sources of strength by which to continue their beneficent work and to grow in power and effectiveness. Speaking generally, it will be necessary that a multitude of relatively small gifts come forward to take the place which has so long been occupied by relatively few large gifts.

* Report for 1921-22, pp. 1-2.

It is natural for the educational system of a great and many-sided university, which has sent out into every part of the world a veritable army of former students who now hold its degrees and diplomas, to look to them not for occasional but for habitual financial support. Each one of these students has been in large degree a beneficiary of the University's resources and the University is proud indeed that such is the fact. In the case of Columbia University there are living approximately 75,000 holders of degrees and diplomas, of whom perhaps 50,000 did their academic work wholly or in part at the cost of the University corporation itself. Taking the latter figure as the basis of computation, were each of these holders of a degree or diploma to make the very small payment of ten dollars each year to the treasury of the University, to be used by the Trustees as an addition to the University's general income and without any limitation or prescription whatsoever, the present heavy burden of the Trustees would be quickly lightened. The sum of \$500,000, equivalent to the income at 5 percent on a new endowment of \$10,000,000, would then be added to the University's general income. A plan of this kind might be put in operation without great effort on the part of anyone and substantially without any overhead cost whatsoever. Were the habit to be established by which every holder of a degree or diploma from the University would make a payment of ten dollars to the Treasurer during the month of May of each year, announcement could be made at the annual alumni luncheon on Commencement Day of a really noteworthy addition to the resources of the University, strengthening it for its many-sided endeavor in a hundred ways. All that is needed to bring into existence a plan of this kind is the will to do so. It requires no costly machinery and no persistent correspondence to rouse interest and to secure affirmative response for appeals for aid. Perhaps these contributing alumni might be formed into a loosely knit university society, similar to the Oxford Society established not long ago by the late Viscount Grey when Lord Chancellor of that university. Each alumnus

making his annual contribution might thereby become a member of this university society, receive regularly certain University publications and be placed of course upon the roll of the University's benefactors. A plan of this character, participated in by substantially all holders of degrees, would certainly strengthen the existing alumni organizations as well as tend to increase their number and effectiveness.*

THE UNIVERSITY AND TAXATION

NOVEMBER 3, 1924

Those who are eagerly bent upon accomplishing some immediate end by legislative means almost always overlook the less obvious and more important effects of the policies which they advocate. This is peculiarly true in respect of matters affecting taxation as that is now practised by the Congress of the United States and by the legislatures of the several states. Numerous individuals and groups wish to use the power of taxation not alone for legitimate purposes of government, but in order to effect what they consider to be a desirable redistribution and equalization of accumulated wealth. If it were practicable, by the power of taxation, to confiscate accumulated wealth wherever it might be found and then to distribute it in equal portions among all the individuals of any state or of the nation, the futility of the policy and the certain disaster that must follow upon its enactment would be plain to everyone. When, however, large portions of accumulated wealth are taken by taxation, poured into the public treasury, and then appropriated for a variety of purposes, many of which are of very doubtful value or of certain valuelessness, the evil effects of the policy are for a time concealed from view. Free capital for use in new enterprises which involve risk and imagination is diminished; the incentive to the eager pursuit of undertakings which are in the public interest while gainful in themselves, is lessened or destroyed; and, worst and most far-reaching of all, the source of supply for the main-

* Report for 1933-34, pp. 53-55.

tenance and development of those notable and representative institutions that have been built up in the field of liberty rather than in the field of government, is dried up. In other words, as a result of a false and narrow-minded plan of taxation, the whole face of our American civilization may be changed and our condition brought to that of Continental Europe, where practically all public undertakings are governmental, with all that that means. It is the glory and the pride of the American social and political system that a whole host of the most important, most representative, and most influential public undertakings have been built up in the field of liberty and are quite outside the field of government. It has long been established public policy that institutions of this kind shall receive the benefit of certain limited exemptions from local taxation, in recognition of their public character and service, but beyond that they have no governmental reference and are, happily, without governmental control. These institutions, whether universities, colleges, hospitals, libraries, or research undertakings of various sorts, have been built up, for nearly three hundred years, by private gifts and benefactions. If the ability to make private gifts and benefactions be destroyed by taxation, then these institutions must begin to die; for the moment that they are not able to grow and to improve in order to meet changed and changing conditions, their state becomes one of decay with certain death in the not far distance. Probably none of those who have embarked so enthusiastically and so boisterously upon the policy of penalizing wealth, of destroying savings, and of grasping for the wasteful purposes of government an increasing share of the results of private enterprise and personal thrift, had any notion of circumscribing or destroying the usefulness of the most noteworthy and the most representative of American institutions. Yet this is precisely what is being done, and the end is certain if the nation continues on its present course. The steady flow of unsolicited and most useful gifts to Columbia University, which has been so marked a feature of its history during the past quarter cen-

ture, has already been greatly diminished as a direct result of existing policies of taxation. Men and women of generous purpose and anxious to advance the public welfare by their benefactions, frankly state that this is the case. It seems highly probable that for some time to come, at least, any substantial additions to the resources of Columbia University — with the possible exception of gifts from those who are the possessors of very great fortunes — must come, if at all, in the form of legacies and bequests. It is only when a considerable estate is to be divided that the owner feels himself able to devote a part of it to public uses. The excessive, and even the double, taxation found in the existing scheme of transfer and inheritance taxes, is nothing other than an open conversion of the nation's capital to the uses of current expenditure. This is an unacknowledged capital levy in a most obnoxious form. If undertakings in the sphere of Liberty are to continue and to play their leading part as representatives of the best in American life and American aspiration, they must receive constant support from private gifts and benefactions; but this will become impossible if the people permit their government to pursue the policy of forcibly taking for its own uses the wealth upon which these institutions must rely for their existence.

The voters of not fewer than three states have recently been called to pass upon a proposal to make elementary education a government monopoly. No more un-American policy could possibly be conceived or entered upon than this. Men and women who have never heard of Plato or his *Republic*, have been assiduously urgent, in Oregon, in Washington, and in Michigan, that one of the chief policies expounded in that famous work be introduced into twentieth-century America. How hopelessly reactionary their proposal is, remains wholly hidden from their consciousness. If elementary education is to become a government monopoly, there would seem to be no good reason why secondary education, higher education, research, and all forms of charitable and eleemosynary work should not take the same course. The sphere of Government would then extend its gla-

cier-like hand over the sphere of Liberty, and what had been smiling meadows and fertile valleys filled with beautiful flowers and making place for happy homes, would pass into the ice-cold and death-dealing clutch of Government. It is high time for Americans to desist from that flippancy which characterizes so large a part of the public press and so many of the office-holding class, and to think seriously of these things.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1934

In view of some current discussions, it is of interest to point out that for the year 1934 the University will pay, either directly or through its tenants, taxes on real property on the island of Manhattan assessed at some \$82,000,000. At the current rate of taxation, these taxes will amount to nearly \$2,250,000. Were this large sum left in the possession of the Trustees of Columbia University to be expended by them in the execution of their great public trust, the service which this University renders to the city of New York, to the state of New York, and to the nation, would be increased manyfold.†

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

Since there is from time to time much uninformed discussion as to the tax exemption granted to public service institutions in the field of Liberty, it is worth while to record the fact that Columbia University is one of the largest, if not the largest, of municipal taxpayers in the city of New York. For the year 1936, the net amount of the assessed valuations of real property on which Columbia University will be required to pay taxes, either directly or indirectly through its tenants, is \$86,595,000 and the amount of those taxes is approximately \$2,350,000.‡

* Report for 1923-24, pp. 28-31.

† Report for 1933-34, pp. 59-60.

‡ Report for 1934-35, p. 34.

TUITION FEES

NOVEMBER 2, 1914

The whole matter of academic fees needs careful study and the principles upon which these fees are now fixed require revision in order to bring them into accord with existing educational conditions. When the course of college study was single, definite, and the same for all students, a fixed annual fee was appropriate, but now that the program of studies is complex, varied and widely different for students of different tastes and capacities, a fixed annual tuition fee is neither appropriate nor equitable. With the introduction, many years ago, of college instruction in the natural and experimental sciences, the practice grew up of requiring a special laboratory fee from students who followed these studies, in order to meet the additional cost of providing laboratory equipment and material. The tacit assumption was that such equipment and material lay outside the general provision of the University for its students and that therefore its cost must be assessed upon those who made use of such equipment and material. A similar course of reasoning would assess upon the students, in proportion to their use of the library, a library fee adequate to meet the cost of library administration and maintenance. At various times and in various ways other small fees have been added, until now the student is vexed by a number of minor payments, which in many cases are not anticipated or clearly understood. Meanwhile, the amount of instruction provided and the cost of giving that instruction have increased enormously, while except in the case of Applied Science, Architecture and Medicine, the fees charged for tuition have remained practically uniform for a generation. That the fee charged for tuition should be increased where it has not recently been raised seems obvious. Such increase would not affect unfavorably, if at all, the really needy student who has a good academic record, owing to the large provision which is made for

the assistance of such students either by scholarships or otherwise. . . .

The advantage of using the point or credit system in fixing a tuition fee is that the student pays for precisely what he takes and that the educational regulations of a given Faculty may then be made on educational grounds only and without any reference to the question of fee. The temptation to the student to take as few points as possible in order to pay the smallest possible fee is one which cannot be wholly done away with. The situation so created may be met, however, at least in great part, by Faculty regulations as to the amount of work which a student must or may take, and by careful administration. . . .

Quite apart from the tuition fee, however, an annual university fee should be paid by every student registered in the University, in recognition of the privileges and benefits of such membership, and all special fees now paid for particular benefits and privileges should be abolished. The University as a whole offers manifest and varied advantages to those who place their names upon its rolls. These advantages have greatly increased in recent years both in number and in variety. In order to make provision for the health, the safety, the comfort and the pleasure of students, large additional expenditures have been undertaken which are a heavy charge upon the general income of the corporation. To distribute the cost of these improvements each year over the enrolled students in the form of a general university fee is the alternative to distributing them permanently over the teaching staff in the form of inadequate salaries. In the former case the tax is a small one per capita and lasts but for the few years that the student is in residence; in the latter case, the tax is a very large one per capita and lasts during the entire lifetime of the members of the teaching staff. The principle of such a university fee has been recognized ever since the imposition, nearly twenty-five years ago, of the fee of five dollars for matriculation or registration. This fee should, of course, be absorbed into the pro-

posed university fee, as should the fee of seven dollars charged for the use of the gymnasium. Physical exercise and development are no longer considered a luxury for those students who can afford to pay for them, but they are recognized as a necessary part of the proper educational provision for the college and university student. There seems to be no more reason why a student should pay a special gymnasium fee or a special laboratory fee in chemistry or physics than a special fee for the use of the library or the grounds of the University. The one is as much a part of the proper general University provision as the other, and the use of both up to the limit of their capacity, under appropriate administrative regulations, may well be open to all duly enrolled members of the University.

If it be possible to fix an annual University membership fee to be paid by all students, and to readjust the tuition fees, putting them upon a point or credit basis and making them cover instruction in all subjects whether given with laboratory work or not, then there will remain no special fees whatever to be paid by students, except those which are punitive in character, and the graduation fee. The punitive fees, including the five-dollar fee for late registration and the five-dollar fee for a special examination, need not be paid by any student who faithfully performs his academic duties. The graduation fee is appropriate enough, since it is paid only by those who leave the University with its formal credential, and not by the large and increasing body of those who come to Columbia for what it can offer to them as individuals but without reference to graduation from the College or any particular school.

It ought to be possible to readjust the fees in such a way as favorably to affect the general income of the corporation. Whether this be possible or not, however, these fees can certainly be readjusted so as to relieve the students of the annoyance of paying a number of small fees for various special privileges and to reduce the student's normal annual payment to his university membership fee and his tuition fee. Should he occupy a

room in a residence hall, that, of course, would be a separate and additional charge which would stand upon its own basis.*

SALARIES AND RETIRING ALLOWANCES

OCTOBER 3, 1904

Nor must we overlook the point urged upon us so forcefully at the Commencement of 1903 by our distinguished guest, Professor J. J. Thomson, of the University of Cambridge. Professor Thomson warned the American universities of the danger of spending too much proportionately on buildings and equipment and too little upon men. We urgently need endowments for professorial salaries. Many of the world's great discoveries have been made in meager and ill-supplied laboratories by men whose genius and devotion have surmounted every obstacle. Indeed, it sometimes seems as if a scholar's productivity varied in inverse proportion to the completeness of his equipment and the magnificence of his surroundings. It often happens that a large and finely equipped laboratory will consume in its mere oversight and care the time and mental energy that should be devoted to investigation. For its laboratories and lecture-rooms, therefore, a University must attract men of the first order of ability, who will not permit themselves to be diverted from teaching and from research, and these men should be rewarded, not lavishly, but becomingly. So long as participation in the work of higher education requires a large material sacrifice which many men cannot, and many others will not, make, a great proportion of the best intellect of the nation will not enlist in the service of education. It is important for the community and for the nation that the leaders in scientific and literary production, the scholars, should be recognized by the public generally as its servants in the highest and best sense. A compensation that will enable a university professor to live decently, to educate his children without undergoing privation, and to take a becoming part in

* Report for 1913-14, pp. 7-12.

the public life and service of the community in which he lives, is a standard at which we should aim and below which we cannot afford to fall.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1906

Despite the heavy burdens upon the corporation as referred to at length in another part of this report, it is not possible longer to avoid facing the fact that the salaries paid to the professors and adjunct professors of the University are inadequate, and that the effects of this inadequacy are deplorable. . . .

The important facts, then, are: first, that the present average salary paid to a Columbia University professor is but one-half of the sum fixed as necessary thirty years ago; and, second, that the cost of living has meanwhile increased between 10 and 20 percent. The purchasing power of the average salary of 1906 is, therefore, hardly more than 40 percent of the purchasing power of the salary established in 1876. In other words, the great and noteworthy expansion of the University, which has been brought about by the labors of the University teachers, has also been brought about at their expense.

Perhaps no class in the entire community has suffered more from the rise in the cost of living than the college and university teachers. A recent publication by the Department of Commerce and Labor indicates that the wages of manual laborers are increasing just now faster than the cost of living; but with the college and university teacher the reverse is the case.

The most important need of this University at the present time is an addition to the endowment fund sufficient to enable the establishment and maintenance of a proper standard of compensation to members of the teaching staff. . . . Nevertheless, this great sum (more than \$3,000,000) must be obtained and these compensations must be fixed and paid or we cannot hope to attract and keep the best men in the teaching profession, nor can we enable those already in it to represent the intellectual and

* Report for 1903-4, pp. 14-15.

moral interests of the community as those interests should be represented. . . . This need is so imperative and the public interests affected by it are so large and so important, that the mere statement of it ought to bring us the needed sum, great though it is, from the men and women who are the large-minded possessors of wealth in this community.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

The very striking increases in the salaries of academic officers that have been made at Columbia during the past ten years have greatly relieved a situation which was at one time deplorable. Nevertheless, the steady rise in the cost of living and the increasing rewards to be had in gainful occupations make it necessary to consider constantly ways and means of increasing the compensation of at least two classes of academic officers. The first class consists of those exceptionally eminent and distinguished men who have come to full middle age and are now part of the pride and glory of the intellectual life of the people of the United States. It is surely suitable that the University should be able to give to such men a compensation that would in some slight way measure the regard and esteem in which their personality and service are held. The second class consists of those young men who, in setting foot upon the lower rungs of the academic ladder, are constantly tempted by business opportunities that offer three or four times the compensation which they can hope for at the moment if they accept an academic career. It is important to the future of American scholarship that such young men should be numerous, for it is from them that a selection must be made of those who are to hold the high places in the academic life of the generation to come. When a man of earnest purpose, good health, and keen intelligence has completed a college and university course, at considerable cost to himself or to his parents, he is not greatly attracted to a career which at the beginning offers him a wage of fifty dollars

* Report for 1905-6, pp. 11, 20-22.

monthly. A skilled handworker would earn much more. If, then, the academic career is to be kept open to men of talent, and if there is to be opportunity for a natural selection of those who are fittest to advance, there must be an initial compensation at least sufficient to hold for the first two or three years the young man who is trying his academic wings. Of course, the relentless enemy of human excellence is human standardization. All proposals to pay the same salary to men who hold the same title or who have served the same number of years are proposals to reward indifference and incompetence at the cost of devotion and achievement. They are the usual undemocratic, but highly popular, device of leveling down, under the illusory belief that this produces equality and that such an equality is democratic. What this device really produces is inequality, and this inequality is most undemocratic. There is no more reason why all academic officers who have the same title should receive the same compensation than there is why all men of the same height or the same complexion should be paid the same wage. The man of experience and of either teaching power or genius for investigation should be advanced, both in compensation and in grade, as rapidly as possible and without any regard to the fate of others who are without his talent or capacity. Only in this way can a university be kept the home of excellence and prevented from becoming an asylum of mediocrities.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1918

For the carrying on of the administrative work of the University, and for the care of its libraries, laboratories, buildings, and grounds, the coöperation is needed of many hundreds of men and women who are academic servants without being academic officers in the ordinary sense. The work of some of these servants is relatively simple and unskilled, while the work of others is highly responsible and involves no inconsiderable technical knowledge and training. In the case of all such persons experi-

* Report for 1915-16, pp. 6-8.

ence and long service are of marked value to the University and contribute greatly to the comfort and convenience of those who carry on its strictly educational work. It has been the aim and the wish of the University to treat these University servants who are not University officers with the consideration which they so fully deserve; but the financial limitations that have pressed so hard upon the Trustees, particularly in recent years, have made it impossible to put into effect some policies which have long since approved themselves to the general judgment. So soon as it can possibly be done, these academic servants should be formally placed upon a wage scale which, as in the case of instructors, stands in direct relationship to the length of their successful service. Either under a group system of insurance or otherwise, they should be provided by the University with financial protection against disability and old age. The hours and conditions of their labor should be, as they now almost always are, the most favorable that circumstances will permit. Some such servants have been on the rolls of the University for considerably more than a quarter of a century, and their pride in the University's reputation and accomplishment is often quite as keen as that of those who guide and carry on the University's educational work. It binds this staff of servants to the University by hooks of steel to make them feel that their work and their loyalty are fully appreciated, and that the University extends to them, as a necessary part of its great and complex organization, the fullest consideration and every possible protection.*

NOVEMBER 3, 1919

The academic teacher needs protection of three kinds. He needs insurance in case of death in early or middle life; he needs protection in case disability overtakes him in early or middle life; and he needs an annuity or allowance to provide for retirement at age sixty-five or thereafter. Protection of the first sort may be had by academic teachers at minimum cost through the poli-

* Report for 1917-18, pp. 51-52.

cies offered by the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America, or at varying cost through other agencies. Protection of the second and third sorts is offered by the coöperation of the University with the teacher in the manner that has just been described. It appears, therefore, that the academic teacher is now for the first time in possession of definite and clearly stated information as to how financial provision may be made on exceptionally favorable terms for the ordinary changes and chances of life. There is little doubt that the wise and beneficent plan that has been so carefully worked out and adopted by the Carnegie Foundation will be very widely availed of as the governing boards of institutions of higher learning come to realize their responsibility toward their teachers. It was very easy for these governing boards to accept the benefactions of the Carnegie Foundation so long as these were showered upon them without any sacrifice or coöperation on their own part, but it requires a higher degree of educational statesmanship and a wider vision to grasp the fact that under modern social and educational conditions the colleges and universities owe it as a duty not only to their teachers but to the public, to coöperate with their teachers in making suitable provision for disability and old age.

In addition to the teachers and administrative officers, whose needs will be cared for under the new contributory plan for retiring allowances, Columbia University has 700 faithful and devoted servants who are neither teachers nor administrative officers. Their skillful coöperation and their trained experience are an important element in the smooth and effective carrying forward of the University's work. These servants are to be found in the library, on the clerical staff, and on the long roll of those who as engineers, firemen, janitors, inspectors, mechanics, and helpers in other ways, protect and keep in readiness for full operation the material fabric of the University. It is probable that for University servants of these various types deferred annuities may be provided under the plan of the Teachers Insurance and

Annuity Association, but in any event their interests, which are those of the University itself, should be protected. Very often they will not be able to make the annual premium payments necessary to provide a deferred annuity available at age sixty-five or later. It is now recommended that either by some plan of group insurance or otherwise, the cost of which would be met by the University itself, servants of these types may be assured that if they die in service leaving dependent wife, child or parent, a definite payment will be made to such dependent or dependents. The cost of such provision would be quite insignificant in comparison with its benefits and its admirable effect upon the morale of the whole University.*

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

The scholar is gradually coming into his own in contemporary democratic society. This is quite as true in Great Britain, in France, in Germany and elsewhere, as in the United States. Larger knowledge and clearer thinking are combining to arrange the various activities of men in a scale of excellence more nearly indicative of real values than has been the case for some generations past. For nearly a century forces widely at work in the world have combined to offer huge material rewards to those who sought them with persistence and reasonable intelligence. With these rewards there went influence and power, whether in the industrial, the financial, or the social world. Oddly irrelevant standards of success were set up and gained large control of the public mind. Money and its possession were identified with wealth, and zeal in pursuit of money became the most prevalent of infectious social diseases. The scholar, the poet, the artist, all of whom deal with realities and permanences rather than with the fleeting and the casual, were looked upon as unpractical, as dreamers, as idealists, that being the term universally applied by those who have no ideas to their fellows who are richer and more

* Report for 1918-19, pp. 22-24.

fortunate. For some time past a change has been taking place and its manifestations are now everywhere in evidence. Even the most prosperous industries are no longer content to be managed by rule of thumb. Technical advisers who are men of science and often scholars as well, are in important positions of counsel and control. The universities are turned to day by day for information, for advice, and for new and specific information in fields where their investigators and research workers are busy with the laws and phenomena of nature. Something approaching ordered and scientific knowledge is being provided as a foundation for modern industry, modern transportation, and modern finance. Indeed, it is coming to be recognized that modern industrial progress rests least of all upon that practical sagacity which is so volubly proud of itself, and most of all on pure science as pursued in the study and the laboratory. All this marks a progress as heartening as it is genuine.

A democratic society which is interpenetrated by scholarship approaches the ideal of human social organization. The American people have yet a long way to go before they even comprehend to the full the problems and ideals of democracy, much less solve the one and reach the other. The disinterestedness of the scholar, the disciplined character of his intelligence, his openness of mind, his willingness to learn, and his capacity to bring new happenings to the test of long experience and of classic standards of excellence, are a richer possession than any gold mine or oil field or industrial establishment, however huge and profitable. Followers of the economic theory of the interpretation of human history conveniently overlook the debasing and demoralizing influence of unrelieved prosperity and of that contentment which leads to self-satisfaction and cynical unconcern for the needs and longings of others. Nothing so blinds the eyes to a great principle as a bulging pocketbook. For all this the scholar and his career provide the antidote. He goes his way quietly, patiently, effectively, courageously, pouring into the

steaming cauldron of public opinion those new elements and those old influences which he believes will help it to become more palatable and more nourishing. He is less concerned with political and social forms than with the substance which underlies and conditions them. To provide the scholar with a career which is protected so far as may be from the graver and more dire tribulations of human existence is an act and a policy of the highest significance, institutionally, morally and politically. What has been done by the new schedule of salaries established at Columbia University, fine as it is, must be regarded only as a beginning. The gap between the compensation of the officers of lower grade and those of highest rank is still too wide. The Instructor and the Assistant Professor should remain objects of sedulous concern until the compensation now established for them is still farther increased.

In his *Memories and Reflections* Lord Oxford and Asquith relates the fact that when Benjamin Jowett was made Regius Professor of Greek at Oxford in 1855, by appointment of Lord Palmerston, his annual salary was the sum of £40, at which it had been set in the days of Henry VIII. It was ten years later before the compensation of this great academic post was raised to the very modest sum of £500, at which it remained for a long time. It must never be forgotten, however, that the personal compensation of the scholar is only one of his professional needs. He requires trained assistance, collections of books, rich, various, and growing, adequate and appropriate laboratory space equipped with the apparatus necessary to his task, and then suitable provision for the prompt publication of the results of his studies, discoveries and reflections. Give the scholar all these and he will be the most contented of human beings, for the lot which he has chosen, and to which none is superior or more rewarding, will then rest upon a foundation so secure and so comfortable that his mind will be free for its task and for the fullest enjoyment of that measure of life which is meted out to him. Of those who willingly choose this happy lot and persevere in it with fine

accomplishment and growing satisfaction, one may surely sing with the poet Vergil

O terque quaterque beati! *

NOVEMBER 6, 1922

It is to be borne in mind that the provision of residence halls is quite as important and as essential a part of the work of the University as is the provision of libraries, laboratories, and classrooms. The chief purpose of university residence halls is not one of mere housing, but rather one of education and educational influence. The cost of residence halls, whether met from the general funds of the University or from gift or bequest, is to be regarded as an expenditure for necessary educational equipment and not primarily as an investment. If the residence halls can be so managed, without impairing their educational usefulness, as to produce a fair return on the sum invested in them, so much the better; but that consideration must always be a secondary one. In the construction of a library or a laboratory, the question is never asked whether it will attract a sufficient number of students to increase notably the corporate income from tuition fees. In principle, the same is true of residence halls; but as a matter of practical experience at Columbia University, it is now demonstrated that well-planned and well-built residence halls can and do pay a reasonable return upon their cost without impairment of their educational value and influence.†

NOVEMBER 5, 1928

There is a principle controlling the corporate attitude just outlined [retiring allowances for professors] which is of utmost importance. There still exists and is widely accepted what may be not improperly described as the "hired man" theory of academic service. According to this very generally accepted theory, a member of an academic community is paid by the year,

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 15-18.

† Report for 1921-22, pp. 8-9.

by the month or by the hour, to render a certain amount of service which is either explicitly defined or conventionally assumed. For example, less than fifty years ago every member of the Faculty of Columbia was expected to teach fifteen hours each week, just as a bricklayer is expected to work eight hours each day. Under the happier conditions that have developed since the University organization of 1890 became effective, Columbia has steadily grown away from that preposterous and undignified theory, although it must be recorded that progress in that respect has not infrequently been resisted with considerable ardor by members of the Faculties themselves. An academic officer in the Columbia University of today is a member of a free society of scholars in which his duty and his ideals are identical, where he pursues that path of scholarship which appeals to his tastes and his capacities and which is his own free choice. His function as a member of this society of scholars is to promote and advance scholarship itself, to guide and stimulate youth, and to serve the public in a myriad different ways through his personal contacts, by his interpretations of scholarship, and by new discoveries in terms of life and its greatest satisfactions. In this conception of the academic life the "hired man" theory can have no possible place.

As a scholar advances in years he will naturally expect, and be expected, to reduce the amount of his visible and measurable labors, and to pass on to younger hands some of the more arduous occupations of the academic life. Unless, however, he is overtaken by actual mental or physical incapacity, or unless there be some other strong reason growing out of the interests and needs of scholarship itself for the final severance of his academic relationships, he should remain in the active service of this society of scholars, devoting his ripest years to those reflections, those researches and those publications for which the earlier years of labor have prepared him. It may well be that in the case of a university group restricted in number, this large and comforting policy could not be carried out without preventing,

through lack of means, the appropriate advancement of scholars somewhat younger in years. Situations of that sort must be met as they arise with good judgment, with tact and with generosity.

These ripest and most experienced of scholars are in the truest sense the University's elder statesmen of highest distinction. Their service, so far as it is outwardly measurable, has been amply rendered through the years that have passed. Once the "hired man" theory be abandoned, then these older scholars are, first of all and most of all, entitled to be protected by the University to the uttermost as the marks of the passing years are made upon them.*

NOVEMBER 1, 1929

As the nation grows and develops both extensively and intensively and as it both widens and deepens the economic and industrial foundation on which the life of the people rests, it becomes increasingly important firmly to establish the academic career and to protect it in every way that is practicable. From time immemorial it has been a general habit to look upon scholars as the praiseworthy and self-sacrificing servants of the public whose wants were so few and so meager that they might well be supplied by the most modest of remunerations. The practical men who were once wittily and truthfully described by Disraeli as those who "continue to practice the mistakes of their predecessors" have looked upon the economic rewards of life, as well as life's comforts and luxuries, as belonging exclusively to themselves. The scholar has conventionally been commended, often respected, more often pitied, but rarely paid. If a scholar is fortunate enough to write a book which the unlettered classes will widely read, he receives a substantial income for a time from royalties on its sale. If the man of science comes upon a new fact or a new principle which can be applied in gain-making fashion, he, too, may receive a more or less inadequate reward for the re-

* Report for 1927-28, pp. 20-22.

sults of his research. These, however, are the accidents of the academic career and not of its essence. It is imperative if a free and liberal democratic society is to continue and to progress and to rise above the plane of mere contented and sumptuous animal existence, that the scholar and the man of science, together with the artist, shall have open to them a career which will not of necessity involve deprivation of practically all of the comforts and material satisfactions of life.

The Trustees of Columbia University have for two generations past done everything which the means at their disposal would permit to advance the academic career and to sustain it on a constantly higher level of opportunity and satisfaction. To strengthen the academic career and to make it still more attractive to young men and young women of good ability and fine ambition, means doing three distinct things, as well as doing them quickly and well.

First, entrance upon the academic career must be made far more inviting than it now is. When a youth, fresh from the stimulus of the laboratory of a great man of science or from the seminar of a distinguished philosopher, historian, economist or man of letters, now weighs the choice of his future career, he must be ready, unless already economically independent, to face the fact that, at the outset of his academic service if that be chosen, and probably for some years to come, perhaps as many as ten or fifteen, he must postpone marriage, turn aside from the temptation to travel, live in extremely modest circumstances and content himself with half the stipend of a junior clerk who has gone straight from the elementary school or from the high school to a business house. To speak bluntly, this is a preposterous situation. The youth who has devoted seven or eight years, first to college and then to university study, and who is judged competent and of promise to enter the academic career, should not be faced with any such conditions. A first task, therefore, is to raise sharply the compensation of those who choose the academic career when they first enter upon it, so that the limitations now

put upon them and the embarrassments to which they are now subject may be as few as possible.

In the second place, the academic career should carry with it a freedom which is as large as possible. The scholar more than any other man should be a self-determining person. He should be free to choose what he wishes to do and the way he wishes to do it, and he should be given quickly and without constant appeal all those assistances, equipments and apparatus which are needful to his work. The university which is conscious of its calling looks upon every form of public service that a scholar can render as academic service. It does not distinguish between the direction of a laboratory, the conduct of a seminar, or the publication of a notable volume on the one hand and those constant and invaluable services which scholars may and do render to government, to industry, to transportation, to finance, and to public undertakings of every kind and sort, on the other hand. The geologist who works for the government of the United States on the problem of Boulder Dam is doing academic work and truly serves, as well as represents, his university. The same is true of the scholars who are summoned by governments of provinces and of states to give counsel and aid in studying and revising their systems of taxation and finance and of general administration. Instances might be multiplied indefinitely farther to illustrate the principle that the university is a living organism of public service, of course attracting to itself great companies of ambitious youth and guiding them, but also constantly serving the public interest in countless other ways.

In the third place, the academic career should offer to the scholar and man of science who has passed his period of probation and definitely established himself in reputation and in service, an emolument greatly in excess of that which is now usual for him. Even with the best that can be done in this regard, the scholar will still fall far short in his scale of compensation of that which is due him because of the quality of his work in society and because of its vital importance.

Given these three important conditions together with established protection for old age or unexpected disability, and the academic career will not only attract an increasing number of ambitious, cultivated and splendid youth, but one of the heaviest of burdens will be lifted from the backs of faithful and devoted men and women who now literally stagger under what they are called upon to bear.

A scale of compensation that would be suitable for Columbia University to establish and that ought to be established by the aid of generous benefaction without any delay, is this:

Professors, arranged in three groups according to service, distinction and academic usefulness	\$12,000, \$15,000 and \$18,000
Associate Professors, arranged in two groups according to service, distinction and academic usefulness	\$ 9,000 and \$10,000
Assistant Professors, arranged in three groups according to service and academic usefulness	\$ 5,000, \$6,000 and \$7,500
Instructors, arranged in three groups according to service	\$ 3,600, \$4,200 and \$4,800
Assistants, arranged in two groups according to service	\$ 2,000 and \$2,400

To establish this scale of academic compensation would require an addition to the present budget of almost exactly \$1,800,000 or, in view of the constant increase in number of the academic staff, of perhaps \$2,000,000. Important and pressing as physical needs are, there can be no question that to lead the way in putting the academic career in the United States on so reasonable a plane of comfort and satisfaction as this, would be an

event of national importance. It would set an example that would literally have to be followed.*

NOVEMBER 4, 1935

Since the beginnings of our university organization some forty-five years ago, it has been the consistent policy of the Trustees to protect the academic career and to make it attractive through proper provision in case of disability or old age. No member of the staff of Columbia University is looked upon as a hired servant whose duty is discharged when he has performed a certain number of hours of academic service each week or who has received all that is his due when he is in receipt of a substantial salary during his years of active service. The Statutes of the University have long contained specific and carefully drawn provisions for the protection of the academic teacher if incapacitated by reason either of illness or of old age. These provisions are regarded as quite as important as the academic salary itself, having been established to give not only protection but dignity and distinction to the academic career.

Fortunately, any provision for compulsory retirement at a designated age has been avoided, for such would be a most unfortunate policy and one damaging to the University. Compulsory retirement at a given age, without any regard whatsoever for mental or physical health or personal usefulness, was apparently first established in some departments of official civil and military service, probably for the purpose of providing opportunity for the advancement of juniors in both age and rank. This, however, is to sacrifice the greater to the lesser end. When the Great War broke out in Europe, the governments of both France and Germany were obliged to turn to the retired lists of their army officers in order to find a sufficient number of satisfactory commanders of the first order of ability. The same would be true to still greater degree were a like demand to be made upon some of the university staffs of the world.

* Report for 1928-29, pp. 31-35.

Owing to a larger measure of outdoor life and physical exercise, to participation in sport, and to wiser and better ordered habits of living, men in active life are retaining their mental and physical health and vigor for a number of years longer than their fathers and grandfathers were likely to do. For this reason among others, compulsory retirement at any age whatever is objectionable, since the wit of man cannot find it possible to devise a rule on this subject that will be adapted to every possible case arising under it. The plan of retirement at Columbia University is the sound one. Any officer of instruction has the privilege of retiring on his own motion at the age of sixty-five or thereafter, and the Trustees likewise have the option of retiring him at their instance when and after that age has been reached. Retirement under these provisions of the University Statutes is, therefore, wholly optional either with the individual or with the Trustees themselves. It is established practice to ask an officer who is about to reach the age of sixty-five whether he wishes to take advantage of the retirement provision. If he replies in the negative, and if the Trustees see no reason to ask for his retirement in the interest of the University, the matter is dropped until such time as something occurs to raise the question of retirement anew. A number of the University's very best scholars, research workers, and teachers are and have been over sixty-five years of age, and among them are those who bring and who have brought the greatest glory to the University. It would have been a tragic loss to retire any one of these by compulsion at the age of sixty-five, or indeed at any other age.

When financial conditions were more favorable than they are at the present time, the Trustees in 1928 took the important step of designating certain professors who sought retirement as Emeritus Professors in Residence and adjusted their compensation accordingly. The purpose of this action was to enable advanced students and research workers to have, from time to time, the counsel, the advice and the criticism of accomplished scholars who had been relieved of any formal academic service.

The effect and the results of this action have been most admirable.

Compulsory retirement is a purely bureaucratic method of dealing with a very grave human problem which should always be treated in terms of personality. Each case should be dealt with on its merits, and this cannot be done and the larger interests of the University protected, unless discretion takes the place of compulsion.*

RESIDENCE HALLS

NOVEMBER 1, 1909

The steady increase in rentals in the neighborhood of the University, and the success which has attended the building of residence halls for students, suggest that the time has come when a study may profitably be made of the problem of providing, either on the University grounds or in their immediate vicinity, an apartment house planned and built for the use of members of the teaching staff. If a sufficient number of professors and their families are prepared to rent apartments in such a building, it is hardly to be doubted that it can be planned in a way to provide more suitable and more ample accommodation than can ordinarily be had for a given rental, and also to give to a number of the academic staff the opportunity to reside in the immediate vicinity of the University and so to share more completely in its many-sided life. A university scholar does but a small part of his duty in the classroom or in the laboratory. He does much by voice and by pen; but there still remains much for him to do by personal contact with men and by frequent and familiar participation in the life of New York. The scholars resident and at work in the city should be as familiar figures in places where men congregate as are the great financiers, the leading men of letters, and the best-known captains of industry. Only by bringing about such a result can we hope to impress the mind and the imagination of the community with the true place of scholarship and science and

* Report for 1934-35, pp. 28-30.

that of their representatives. A suitable building, placed, perhaps, on the southwest corner of South Field, could be erected and maintained much as the residence halls for students are now maintained. The question is a many-sided one, but the economic and social interests of the professors, as well as the larger interests of the University itself, require that it be considered with the utmost care before such a procedure is dismissed as impracticable.*

NOVEMBER 6, 1916

A new University problem is presented by the rapid increase in the number of women graduate students. During the last academic year, more than a thousand women who had already taken a baccalaureate degree at Columbia University, or elsewhere, were registered for advanced or graduate instruction. The University Committee for Women Graduate Students found that one-half of this number were living in the vicinity of the University. During the past five years the number of such students has doubled, and the time has come when a suitable residence hall for women graduate students must be provided. At present these students suffer from many inconveniences and hardships to which they should not be exposed. Frequently they have poor air and light in rooms that open on inner courts or they live surrounded by distracting noises. The lack of any reception room in which to receive callers is an almost universal characteristic of the houses in which these students lodge, and the problem of finding satisfactory table board is a serious one. A suitable residence hall for this great body of women graduate students might be made a unique feature in American university life. It should be more than an ordinary college dormitory, and should combine the features of a residence hall with those of a building designed for the special occupancy and use of university women. It should provide both rooms and board for resident women graduate students, and should furnish a dignified and appropriate

* Report for 1908-9, pp. 36-37.

meeting place for this entire group. Such a building might soon become well known as an intellectual and social center for women engaged in scholarly pursuits, and thereby attract women of intellectual gifts and attainment not only from all parts of the United States, but from foreign universities as well.*

* Report for 1915-16, pp. 28-29.

APPENDIX

TABLES SHOWING THE GROWTH OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, 1864-1935

THE contrasting numbers exhibited in the following tables are included for what they may signify to those who know that the dynamic spirit of the University rests upon an enduring material foundation, and to those who know that the University power flows only from men to men. There is no magic in the numerical items. They do not measure the University. On the other hand they reveal to an impressive degree the quality of the personal responsibilities of the leadership of the institution that has come to be Columbia University.

E. C. F.

NOTE: Certain data for 1864-65 are unavailable. Points of suspension indicate that a school had not been founded or had not become affiliated with Columbia University in the year for which figures are given.

TABLE I: STAFF

	1900-1901	1934-35
Instructors of All Ranks		
Columbia University	298*	2,001*
Barnard College	36	111
Teachers College	20†	127†
College of Pharmacy		13†
New York Post-Graduate Medical School		427
Bard College		14†
<i>Gross Total</i>	354	2,693
Deduct Duplicates	56	692
<i>Net Total</i>	298	2,001*
Administrative Officers	17	80
Emeritus Professors	10	69
University Extension and Home Study, Exclusive of Above		417
Summer Session, Exclusive of Above	14	369
<i>Grand Total</i>	339	2,936

* Excluding Clinical Assistants; including entire teaching staff of Barnard College and of the New York Post-Graduate Medical School, of whatever grade, including officers of professorial grade *only* in Teachers College, Bard College, and the College of Pharmacy.

† Including officers of professorial grade only. Appointments below the grade of Assistant Professor in Teachers College, Bard College, and the College of Pharmacy are not made by the Trustees of Columbia University.

TABLE II: ENROLLMENT

	1864-65	1900-1901	1934-35
RESIDENT STUDENTS			
Undergraduate Students			
Columbia College	154	476	1,737
Barnard College	...	301	1,024
University Undergraduates	185
Bard College	114
Seth Low Junior College	230*
<i>Total Undergraduates</i>	154	777	3,290
Graduate and Professional Students			
Graduate Faculties	...	466†	2,862†
Law	158	423	635

TABLE II: ENROLLMENT — *Continued*

	1864-65	1900-1901	1934-35
RESIDENT STUDENTS—<i>cont.</i>			
Medicine	300	797	458
Engineering	29§	566	246
Architecture			77
Journalism			74
Business			428
School of Dental and Oral Surgery			
Dentistry			209
Oral Hygiene			61
Library Service			378
Optometry			85
Teachers College		528	6,822 ¶
New College			335
Pharmacy			420
Unclassified			311
<i>Total Graduate and Professional Students</i>	487	2,780	13,401
Deduct duplicates	0	105	151
Add total Undergraduates	154	777	3,290
<i>Total</i>	641	3,452	16,540
University Classes (University Extension)			
At the University		679**	5,540
<i>Total</i>	641	4,131	22,089
Deduct duplicates	0	0	100
<i>Net Total Winter and Spring Sessions</i>	641	4,131	21,989
Summer Session		417	10,281
<i>Total</i>	641	4,548	32,270
Deduct duplicates	0	108	2,059
<i>Grand Net Total, Resident Students, Winter, Spring, and Summer Sessions</i>	641	4,440	30,211
NONRESIDENT STUDENTS			
Students in Home Study courses (given without academic credit)	700
Students in University Extension extramural courses (given with or without academic credit)	1,730
Students in University Extension special courses (given without academic credit)	478
<i>Total, Nonresident Students</i>	2,908

* Exclusive of 67 University Undergraduates taking courses at Seth Low Junior College. † Includes 33 auditors.

‡ The total, 2,862, does not include 526 candidates for a higher degree enrolled in the Summer Session only.

§ School of Mines.

|| Faculty of Applied Science.

¶ Does not include 2,934 candidates for a higher degree enrolled in the Summer Session only.

** Teachers College.

TABLE III: DEGREES AND DIPLOMAS GRANTED

	1864-65	1900-1901	1934-35
Degrees in Course.	169	606	4,481
Honorary Degrees.	10	6	11
Certificates	0	0	92
Diplomas in Education	0	89	312
<i>Total</i>	179	701	4,896

TABLE IV: GIFTS IN MONEY

	1900-1901	1934-35
Columbia University	\$361,369.54	\$1,766,571.97
Barnard College.	6,860.00	34,350.73
Teachers College.	163,700.00	239,869.12
College of Pharmacy.
Bard College	65,590.63
New York Post-Graduate Medical School	58,950.57
<i>Total</i>	\$531,929.54	\$2,165,333.02

TABLE V: PROPERTY AND ENDOWMENT

	1900-1901	1934-35
Columbia University.	Not recorded	\$118,279,485.69
Barnard College.	\$ 979,052.10	8,365,978.08
Teachers College.	1,832,408.22	18,013,027.50
College of Pharmacy.	623,331.24
Bard College.	1,644,062.60
New York Post-Graduate Medical School.	5,064,501.49*
<i>Total</i>	\$2,811,460.32	\$151,990,386.60

* Includes hospital.

TABLE VI: BUDGET

	1900-1901	1934-35
Columbia University	\$1,058,018.80*	\$11,065,592.56
Barnard College	41,489.04†	448,268.30†
Teachers College	214,641.96	2,649,374.06‡
College of Pharmacy	143,762.81
Bard College	214,727.00§
New York Post-Graduate Medical School	67,330.92
<i>Total</i>	<u>\$1,314,149.80</u>	<u>\$14,589,055.65</u>

* Including \$42,400.00 paid by Barnard College for salaries.

† Not including \$454,027.04 contained in Columbia University Budget for 1934-35; for 1900-1901 excluding \$42,400.00 contained in Columbia University Budget.

‡ Not including \$726,096.42 contained in Columbia University Budget.

§ Not including \$52,700.00 contained in Columbia University Budget.

|| Not including \$61,931.40 contained in Columbia University Budget.

TABLE VII: INCOME

	1864-65	1900-1901	1934-35
Columbia University			
Student Fees	\$26,253.41	\$ 431,967.14	\$ 3,669,029.84
Other Sources	67,107.75	452,205.38	5,355,940.25
Barnard College	97,185.19	850,417.81
Teachers College	234,000.80	3,278,068.61
College of Pharmacy	170,614.32
Bard College	199,689.77
New York Post-Graduate Medical School	1,198,088.39*
<i>Total</i>	<u>\$93,361.16</u>	<u>\$1,215,358.51</u>	<u>\$14,721,848.99</u>

* Includes hospital.

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